

The Nation.

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The Week.

THE full vote for President in all the States shows totals for the various candidates as follows: Cleveland 5,567,990, Harrison 5,176,611, Weaver 1,025,060, Bidwell 258,347. Cleveland's plurality over Harrison is 391,379. The most striking feature of these figures is the small increase of the total vote in 1892 over that in 1888. Disregarding the scattering and nondescript ballots, the record during the last four Presidential contests shows these totals for the Republican, Democratic, Prohibition, and Greenback, Labor, or People's party, as it has been variously called:

1880.....	9,218,251
1884.....	10,052,706
1888.....	11,370,662
1892.....	12,028,008

It will be seen that there was a gain of 834,455 between 1880 and 1884, and 1,317,956 between 1884 and 1888, while the gain from 1888 to 1892 is only 657,346. The gain of 834,455 from 1880 to 1884 was less than normal, because in the latter year so many Republicans refused to support Blaine and did not go to the polls at all, the Republican vote actually falling off in more than one State—as in Massachusetts from 165,205 to 146,724, and in Connecticut from 67,071 to 65,923—while in New York the increase was the mere trifle of 6,461, instead of the 75,000 that was to have been expected from the growth of population; and in other States the Blaine candidacy was equally disastrous. As no such element entered into the contests of either 1880 or 1888, the total votes of those years furnish an excellent basis for estimating the natural increase. The gain in the eight years was 2,152,411, which shows clearly that, if men had voted as generally in 1892 as in 1888, the total this year should have been fully 1,250,000 larger than four years ago, whereas the increase is not much more than half as great.

The Democratic vote shows an absolute increase for Cleveland from 5,536,242 to 5,567,990, but this falls far short of representing his actual gain, as Cleveland voters of 1888 to the number of fully 250,000 this year supported the Weaver ticket in Kansas, Nebraska, Colorado, and other Western States. In those parts of the country where such complications did not exist, he gained largely, and it seems safe to estimate that, if the Weaver candidacy had been no more important elsewhere than it was in the older States, the Democratic gain would have been more than 500,000. The Weaver vote is rather larger than was generally expected, but it does not signify what it would have meant if it had really been exclusively a

third-party vote, instead of being largely a fusion one, to which the Democrats contributed so greatly in States which could not otherwise have been kept from the Republicans. The Bidwell vote is a great disappointment to the Prohibitionists, showing an increase of only about a dozen thousand in the whole country, whereas they had counted upon a gain of fully a quarter of a million. Altogether, the full returns afford little satisfaction to any but the tariff-reformers. The Prohibition movement has evidently ceased to grow; the large vote for the People's party is really only one form of the protest against McKinleyism; while the tremendous loss of the McKinley party itself shows the absolute hopelessness of its cause.

The *Bulletin* of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers for December contains statistics of the wool clip of the United States for the present year. This showing, when compared with the votes cast at the recent election, is quite as remarkable as that of Mr. J. Q. Smith as to the separate wool-growing counties of Ohio. The largest wool-growing State is Texas (35,281,225 pounds), which also gave the largest majority of any State for Cleveland. The next largest is California (26,543,016 pounds), and this State for the first time since 1880 cast her electoral vote for a Democratic candidate for President. The third in the list is Ohio (22,340,435 pounds), and in this State the Republican majority has dwindled to almost nothing. There is no other State that produces as much as 20,000,000 pounds. Here we have fresh proof that the wool-grower as a political bugbear is played out. Yet the *Bulletin* takes great pains to speak him fair. Commenting on the recent election and the probable repeal of the duty on wool, it says, "Thou canst not say I did it"—the *Macbeth* in this case being the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, and the *Banquo* being Judge Lawrence of Ohio. No, dear innocent Thane of Cawdor, nobody shall accuse you of anything except cutting the throat of the American consumer of woollen goods.

What is the prospect of a repeal of the law which requires the buying of seven tons of pig silver, at a cost of \$125,000 gold for each working day of the year? The *Philadelphia Ledger* publishes some recent observations of Senator Sherman on this subject, viz.:

"In relation to the repeal of the act of July 14, 1890, Senator Sherman said to me yesterday: 'I am not only willing, but very desirous, to stop the further purchase of silver bullion under the act of July 14, 1890, and will support any bill that will accomplish this object. The trouble is—first, that we have but sixty days in which to complete the necessary legislation, and it would be easy for

a few Senators who oppose the modification of that act to prevent action by long debates; and second, it is believed that a majority of the Senate will, as they did last year, put on as an addition to any bill that is offered a provision for the free coinage of silver. This would be infinitely worse than the present law, and would, if passed, be vetoed by the President. I think if active efforts were made with Senators to oppose such an amendment, it might possibly be defeated; but if they vote as they did at the last session, the free-coinage provision would pass and the veto would necessarily extend to the entire bill.'"

The second difficulty which Mr. Sherman apprehends is one which must be met whenever the silver problem is grappled. If we wait until all the free-silver Senators have disappeared, we shall wait for ever.

Senator McPherson's resolution, which proposes to give the Secretary of the Treasury authority to suspend the purchase of silver bullion whenever he may think it advisable to do so, will have the effect to bring on a new discussion of that great question—the greatest, in our judgment, that now confronts the American people. The Treasury gold balance is running down rapidly, and our stock of the yellow metal is going away to countries where it is appreciated. There is a strong probability that India will take steps to reach the gold basis, all hope of international bimetalism having vanished with the close of the Brussels Conference. This will not be so difficult a task for India as it would be if she had a legal ratio between silver and gold different from the market ratio. She can adopt, for the settlement of past contracts, the market ratio of the day when the law goes into effect, say 26 to 1, or she can allow past contracts to be settled on the silver basis, and make gold the only legal tender for future ones, including dues to and from the Government. There is every probability that silver will continue to decline. If India adopts the gold standard, it may drop to 50 cents an ounce. It is nothing but pig metal now, and there is no more reason for our Government buying it than there would be for buying pig lead or pig iron. All that is necessary in our judgment to get rid of this baleful law is for all those who are opposed to it to make it their supreme business to fight against it till it is swept from the statute books. If all such persons will fight their own battles with the same spirit as the mine-owners fight theirs, the victory will not long be doubtful. The latter have shown what they think of the Brussels Conference by the most terrible assaults on Mr. Alfred de Rothschild. A Colorado paper, entitled the *Road*, publishes a cartoon representing this poor man as hanged on a telegraph pole by indignant miners or road agents, with an inscription saying: "The silver States of the West will hold a little International Monetary Conference of their own if some-

thing is not done soon to rectify the crime of 1873." This is the kind of talk that we should like to hear from the opponents of the Sherman Law and of all other measures for making pig metal legal tender.

It is already apparent that the defenders of American shipping are alarmed at their own action in consenting to an American register for the *City of Paris* and the *City of New York*. Senator Frye announces that no more foreign-built vessels will be allowed to sail under the American flag. Why not? If it was right in their case, and if exultation over the sight of the flag on those vessels is the purest patriotism, why should not the same privilege be extended to others under the same conditions? Senator Frye has put his hand to the plough, and cannot now turn back without admitting either that he basely betrayed American shipping in giving the privilege in a single case, or that he is in favor of the grossest partiality and favoritism in legislation. The truth probably is that he now sees, what we maintained at the time, that the concession made in favor of the Inman Line cannot in fairness be withheld from others, and so was the beginning of a movement which is destined to go on until it sweeps away all the absurdities of our navigation laws.

Our relations with Canada must be admitted to be seriously strained, but the strain is largely due to the immense amount of burlesque which they have had to carry. A few days ago our Secretary of State and the Canadian Finance Minister, Mr. Foster, were engaged in a daily journalistic duel at long range, denouncing and confuting each other in rival and answering interviews. This was presumably un-diplomatic conduct, and certainly was highly absurd. Then came the startling discovery that Canada was violating the terms of the agreement between this country and Great Britain relative to armed vessels on the great lakes, and was building two men-of-war, calling them revenue cutters so as to allay our suspicions and leave us unprepared to resist when she got ready to declare war. But she had not reckoned on the enterprise of the American press, which promptly saw through her sinister designs and denounced her in fitting terms. Then Gen. Miles came along declaring that the very building of these cutters was "a declaration of war," and intimating that the Administration would take up the challenge with proper spirit. Meanwhile, the size and formidableness of those Canadian vessels were growing daily, and the anxious dwellers on the American shore of the lakes were in daily expectation of hearing the boom of their terrible cannon. But a great calm has suddenly come, which is, perhaps, explained by the report of an "old shipowner" in Buffalo, "one of the few who have been allowed

to inspect these vessels." He asserts that they are "much smaller than has been represented," are armed with "one small gun each," and that, wonderful as it may seem, Sir Julian Pauncefote was not lying when he assured our Government that they were "mere revenue cutters." Then he added: "Even if they were 350-ton vessels, as has been reported, what does that signify when it is known that within a month past there have been launched at Toledo two 2,500-ton vessels, intended for the lake trade, but purposely constructed so that in a very few hours' time they can be converted into formidable men-of-war, capable of knocking these Canadian cruisers into a cocked hat?" This makes it look as if the "declaration of war" was on our side.

The *Tribune* reports President Harrison to have under advisement the offer of a lectureship on law in the Leland Stanford University, after the expiration of his term of office. We should say that he could be highly useful as a lecturer on law, especially on international law, and there would be peculiar appropriateness in his taking a chair in that department in a California institution. It would be easy for him to take his classes down to San Diego, to let them study on the spot those great principles of international law which, under his official direction, led to the seizure of the *Itata*, and afterwards to her serio-comic chase by the *Charleston*. It would be highly convenient and instructive, too, to lead his students to the very Federal court-room in the city where those principles were declared by a United States Judge to be no principles at all, but the arbitrary whims of a chauvinistic Administration, and the detention and chase of the *Itata* to have been illegal and outrageous. Mr. Harrison has referred to this decision in a message of his to Congress, and has said that if this is the law it is highly important to have it understood. Who so well fitted as he to make it understood, especially with all the advantages of local color and object-lessons that he would enjoy in a California university? It is a clear case of the office seeking the man.

An interesting sign of the growing faith in civil-service reform is found in the statement that the President has been urged to put under the classified civil service the men employed along the line of the Louisville and Portland Canal at the Ohio River Falls, the petitions having been signed by every steamboat, barge, passenger, freight, and tow-boat line, steamboat-owner or firm, and every coal-miner and shipper on the Ohio River from Pittsburgh to Paducah, including the Tennessee, Cumberland, and Kentucky River lines, and every commander of a vessel using the canal who could be found when they were circulated, and the request being based on the requirements of

the public service in the operation of the canal for the benefit of the great fleets which use it. We regret to learn from the *Indianapolis Journal*, the President's home organ, that Mr. Harrison has declined to grant the request, "on the ground that he could not single out a few Government employees here and a few there and put them under the Civil-Service Act, but that whatever he did in that direction must relate to a class." But the pledge of the Republican party, in the platform upon which Mr. Harrison was elected, was that the reform system should be extended "to all the grades of the service to which it is applicable." It is perfectly obvious that the system is applicable to the body of employees here referred to, and it is a piece of unworthy quibbling for the President to refuse to apply it to them on the ground that they do not constitute "a class."

The Nicaragua Canal Bill reported by Senator Sherman on December 21 is of too great importance to be disposed of in the present short session of Congress, in the intervals between appropriation bills and other necessary legislation. Moreover, the incoming Administration, which must execute the law if it is passed, is entitled to have something to say about the details of a bill which pledges the credit of the Government to the extent of \$100,000,000. We presume that the House of Representatives will see the propriety of giving Mr. Cleveland and his Cabinet a fair chance to consider a measure of such magnitude. If the bill should pass the Senate, it should be held back as long a time at least as that body has kept the bill repealing the duty on wool.

In the pardon of the Jersey City ballot-box stuffers it is, unfortunately, the expected that has happened. The Governor of the State was really the deciding power in the matter, and there has been no doubt for some time that it was a part of the game he is playing for Senatorial honors to set these polluters of the ballot-box free. The New Jersey Court of Pardons is composed of the Governor, the Chancellor, and the Lay Judges of the Court of Errors and Appeals. Chancellor McGill and Judge John Clement refused to consent to the pardons. Gov. Abbett and Judges A. H. Smith, J. W. Krueger, H. H. Brown, and G. Bogert voted to set the criminals free. The refusal of the Chancellor to vote for the pardons is enough of itself to stamp the report in favor of clemency as a mere excuse on the part of the judges who sign it for carrying out the Governor's mandate. We shall be surprised if this action of the pardoning officers does not arouse a feeling of indignation throughout New Jersey that the Legislature will not dare to ignore.

Gov. Flower's announcement that he is going to reappoint Judge Maynard, and

will pay no attention to any remonstrances, wipes out the favorable impression created by his conduct during the last few months, and apparently reveals him again as the mere tool of the Democratic Machine, ready at any moment to obey whatever command it lays upon him. The manner of the announcement was as offensive as its matter. The morning newspapers had reported the meeting of the Bar Association of this city the previous evening, at which resolutions were adopted by an almost unanimous vote declaring its opinion that Maynard's reappointment would be "eminently unfit," requesting the Governor to fill the place by the appointment of somebody else, and providing for the transmission of a copy of the resolutions to the Governor. Courtesy, not to say common decency, required that Mr. Flower should give this action of the Association some consideration, and it was in the worst possible taste, as well as morals, for him to retort so precipitately with the announcement of his purpose to reappoint Maynard. Attempts have been made and will now be repeated to excuse the Governor's original appointment by the claim that his action then met the approval of the members of the court, but this is a gross misrepresentation of the facts. The truth is that he announced his intention in the matter at a formal reception on New Year's Day when the judges had called to pay their respects, and when the occasion permitted only a bow of acknowledgment from the callers, which signified nothing. The plea that consistency requires the Governor to appoint Maynard again is the only refuge left him, and it will not avail, for if it means anything, it means that he must sink back again into that most humiliating position which he occupied during the first few months of his term as the mere dummy of the party machine.

The English Wesleyans have just had a discussion of "the higher criticism" of the Bible on their hands, in the shape of a charge of heresy brought against Prof. Davison of their denominational Handsworth College, at Birmingham. Certain papers of his on the methods and achievements of the new Biblical criticism were made the basis of an attack upon him, on the ground that they would "unsettle the minds" of ordinary readers of the Scriptures, and were especially dangerous as instruction given to theological students. The case was laid before the Committee on Theological Institutions, and their report completely sustains the professor. They assert that his views have no tendency to unsettle the minds of "careful students" of the Bible, but, on the contrary, "are well calculated to instruct those who have not had such advantages of study, and to reassure the faith of those who may have had their minds more or less disturbed by such adverse criticisms as are now current in many quarters." Liberality like this would clearly be out of the question

in any Methodist body in this country, and is sufficiently striking even for England. English theological progress has been about a generation behind German, and American about the same distance behind English.

M. de Blowitz, Paris correspondent of the London *Times*, shows an increasing apprehension lest the republic should receive some detriment from the Panama Canal scandal. The danger, according to this discerning person, arises not from the corruption of people in high office and in the press, but from their exposure. The crafty Boulangists, the eager royalists, and all the enemies of the present form of government are pushing the investigation with fiendish energy, knowing well that the hour is coming when the barricades will rise in the streets. Meanwhile the Ministry are playing into the hands of their opponents. "A strong government," he says, "would never have submitted to the dictates of its worst enemies." The *Times* ought to recall M. de Blowitz and send in his place somebody like the youth who wrote to it from western Pennsylvania concerning the approaching downfall of England. The latter knew that there was one thing worse than exposed corruption, and that was the corruption that infects unseen till the whole edifice falls, as it did under the third Napoleon. Any Government can bear the exposure of corruption if it does not try to hide it or lie out of it. What it cannot bear is internal dry rot. There are some things worse than barricades in the streets.

The French are just now witnessing one of the well-known phenomena of public corruption when undergoing exposure. It is the defence made by the detected corruptionists, which consists in asserting, first, that they have always been highly patriotic; second, that the money they received from suspicious quarters was religiously expended for the public good; third, that they are attacked by enemies of the republic, who are simply enraged at failing to ruin it already, thanks to their own watchfulness and patriotism; and, finally, that their consciences do not reproach them for anything they have done. M. Rouvier was especially impressive on this last point. His conscience was perfectly clear, and, therefore, how could there be anything in the charges against him? All this is an old story with us. We have seen even a candidate for the Presidency assert that he had nothing to be ashamed of in letters proving his corruption, and his friends gravely arguing that, if he did not blush, there was no reason why they should. Another form of defence is the claim by the accused person that he has not lost a minute of sleep on account of the charges made against him. We shall doubtless see this brought forward by some of the public jobbers in France as

a proof of innocence. Luckily for us, we have become pretty cynical about such matters, and do not any longer think that an inert conscience and a good digestion are necessarily incompatible with crime.

There seems some likelihood that M. Floquet may be obliged to resign his place as President of the Chamber of Deputies because he has admitted, in the Panama inquiry, that when he was in the Ministry he distributed the Government advertising to his political supporters in the press. But it is interesting to remember, as showing how we lead the nations, that this has been the practice of our Governments—State, municipal, and Federal—for many a day, and that, as appeared in the trial of Gray vs. Shepard, it is considered perfectly harmless, as long as the man who controls the advertising is not bribed by the periodicals to which he gives it. Another improving example for American journalists is to be found in the arrangements made for the Déroulède-Clémenceau duel. Who of us when about to engage in mortal combat with a man who had no newspaper, would agree not to issue an extra with the news of the duel in advance of the other journals—and carry out the agreement? Is there one of us, under such circumstances, who would not bargain that no reporter should be present on either side, and then conceal one of his own in the shrubbery or behind the fence, so as to get "a scoop" on his contemporaries? We trow not. In truth, the solemn arrangements made by Clémenceau for a fair start for all the newspapers, including *La Justice*, strike us as fatiguing in the extreme, "proceeding from the tea-custard and syllabub dilettanteism, the frivolous and desultory sentimentalism of epicenes."

The status of the Republican party in Spain was pretty well indicated by an incident which occurred in the Cortes on December 12. On that day the new Prime Minister, Sagasta, read the royal decree for the adjournment of the session, and the outspoken Republican Deputy from Barcelona, Sr. ñor Salmerón, seized the occasion to rise and hurrah for the Republic. His act made a great sensation, but the next day, when the presiding officer suggested that some form of rebuke or punishment should be applied to Salmerón for his revolutionary cry, the Premier opposed taking any step of that kind. He said that the offending Republican had already found sufficient punishment in the fact that not a single one of his friends had joined him in his revolutionary cheer. With this the incident was regarded as closed. It should certainly convey its own lessons to those ill-informed newspapers in this country which pictured the fall of the Conservative Ministry as due to a Republican rising in Madrid and in the Peninsula generally.

"PERSONALITIES."

THERE is no political hallucination in which political wrongdoers delight more, and by which they profit more, than the notion that bad administration can be exposed and corrected without being personal or mentioning names. For the purpose of securing good or amending bad legislation general denunciation of sin, while carefully avoiding all mention of particular sinners, may suffice. But when the political reformer comes to deal with administrative abuses, there is nothing for it but to name the person whose conduct has brought the abuse into notice. No administrative abuses are known, or can be known, except by ascertaining that somebody in office has done what he ought not to have done, or has left undone something which he ought to have done. Imperfections in rules and regulations, or in the bookkeeping, or in the mode of guarding funds, or in the working of particular legal powers or duties, are all brought to light, and have to be brought to light, by the acts of a certain person or persons; and no reform can be effected except by telling the world who did it and how he came to do it. It is in this way, and in this way only, that public opinion can be brought to bear on the question of remedy or prevention. For example, the other day in the Post-office a youth, intrusted with the custody of postage-stamps, stole \$5,000 worth and disappeared, having previously evaded detection, when his effects were examined, by showing the edges of sheets of blank paper in his bundles of stamps, which he had adroitly inserted in lieu of sheets of stamps. This was a new and clever form of fraud, but it would be absurd to seek to provide a remedy simply by denouncing the stealing of stamps by Post office clerks as a serious offence, without mentioning the theft committed by Cadman.

Especially futile would have been the attempt to bring to light the defects of a Tammany State Quarantine without any mention of the shortcomings of Dr. Jenkins. It is Dr. Jenkins's administration of a Tammany State Quarantine last summer which has made known what these defects are. First and foremost among them is, in fact, Dr. Jenkins himself, because he illustrates the Tammany disregard of the statute which provides that the Health Officer shall be "a doctor of medicine of good standing, of at least ten years' experience in the practice of his profession, and practically familiar with quarantinable diseases." Dr. Jenkins had none of these qualifications, and his appointment and career last summer therefore proved two things of the highest importance—(1) the viciousness of the system which allows Tammany to select the Health Officer, and (2) the bad results which are likely to flow from failure to select in the manner prescribed by the statute.

Had the Advisory Committee of the Chamber of Commerce, therefore, confined themselves to a description of the horrors which they saw on Hoffmann's Island,

to the confusion and indiscipline they found on board the *Stonington* and in other places, the busy public, which thought Jenkins was "keeping out the cholera" last summer, and did not particularly care how he did it, might have supposed that the state of things which the Committee described was a necessary concomitant of all quarantine, and no more capable of remedy than the loss of life through casualties and disease in time of war; that Dr. Jenkins had done his best, and that the Quarantine critics were simply "kickers," and it might then have gone about its business with a "houp-là." But when, under a direct question from Mr. Orr, the Chairman of the Committee, the Advisory Committee declared their opinion that the "present Health Officer had not shown sufficient executive ability nor sufficient knowledge of sanitary science to warrant the belief that he can in future manage Quarantine affairs in a satisfactory and safe manner," they indicated in a few words both the nature of the abuse to be remedied and the nature of the remedy. They made clear to the public what the reform was which the occasion called for. They made their report a political document of high importance, instead of a description of an excursion down the Bay in cholera times by a party of scientists.

Somewhat the same thing may be said of the dealings of the Bar Association with Judge Maynard's case. How many essays on judicial corruption, how many descriptions of the Upright Judge, and of the qualifications for the judicial office, how many eloquent and moving addresses to the graduates of the law schools on commencement day on the noble part of the bar in the administration of justice, would it take to make the impression on the public mind which has been made by the Bar Association in singling out this one offender against all the traditions of judicial purity, and telling the public what the thing was and how the thing was done which makes his presence on the judicial bench a scandal and a continuing insult to the community? We do not hesitate to say that this action, like the impeachment of Barnard and the chasing of Cardozo from the bench, has done more for judicial purity than all the articles, sermons, speeches, of the last fifty years. In short, no work of reform can be done in our time without personality. The huge masses of busy, and indifferent, or ill-informed people who now rule the world, and most of whom are face to face every day with the problem of self-preservation in its sternest form, and scarce can find time to glance at the newspapers, can only with extreme difficulty and only on rare occasions be got to take an interest in *subjects*. In persons they take a great interest. Their politics are largely personal. They are more and more apt to embody their ideas, whether friendly or hostile, in a man or men. To rouse them about crime or abuse, you have to produce a criminal; to

win them over to a plan of prevention, you must in their presence drive out the evil-doer, and show them on the spot the more excellent way. Nor is there anything to lament in this peculiarity of democracy. Nothing has done so much for human character as the spectacle of individual accountability. A community which expressed its morality wholly in righteous platitudes would not have long to live. The world cannot be saved by rhetoric.

THE MAYNARD CASE.

THERE is much indignation over Gov. Flower's blunt announcement that he will reappoint Judge Maynard to the vacancy left on the bench of the Court of Appeals by the election of Judge Andrews to the Chief Judgeship; the remonstrance of the Bar Association and the plain merits of the case to the contrary notwithstanding. It is of course very bad, and very disgraceful, not only to Gov. Flower himself, of whom better things have of late been expected, but to the whole community of which he is the chief executive officer. But any one who will look carefully into the conditions under which both the Judge and the Governor have learned all they know about politics, will be inclined to be somewhat indulgent towards them both.

Why is it that the Bar Association's terrible condemnation of Judge Maynard's conduct in the matter of the electoral count made no impression on either him or the Governor? We can recall nothing equal to it for severity in the history of either the bench or the bar. In any other civilized country it would have driven Judge Maynard into a retirement from which he would never have emerged, and would have drawn from an officer filling a place as high as Gov. Flower's a repudiation of all connection with him as indignant as words could make it. Why is it that the public decencies of Christendom have come to have no weight in the Executive Chamber at Albany?

The answer is, we think, to be found in the reasons given by some lawyers for opposing the action taken by the Bar Association on Tuesday week protesting against the appointment which it knew was coming. "If," they said, "you do this [that is, take any more notice of the offences of which the Committee convicted the Judge last March], it will have the air of persecution. You will excite sympathy for the Judge, and you will provoke the Governor into appointing him just to show his contempt for you." Now, there is in this objection the explanation of the protracted existence of fully half the corruption and abuses by which we are afflicted, and of the prosperity and audacity of far more than half the knaves who infest our public life. For out of it has grown a rule which we teach all our young men, and on which journalists usually act, which says: "You must never notice a political crime or scandal more than once, or

at most twice, except during a political canvass. - If, after the rascal has got into the office which you tried to keep from him, or has escaped the prosecution with which you threatened him, and has successfully defied all efforts to make him surrender his booty, you keep denouncing him, or holding him up to public reprobation, or, in fact, take any steps calculated to make him uncomfortable in the possession of it, you will surely make him an object of public sympathy, and sympathy connotes esteem. You will relieve him of the odium his offences have justly brought upon him, and strengthen the hands of his apologists."

This rule falls in so well with the national good-nature that it has become almost imbedded in the national conscience as a rule of right. It now furnishes the entrenchment behind which nearly all the political knaves and corruptionists defy public opinion. When they are caught or exposed, they tell each other to keep still, make no defence, and in a few days the affair will blow over, and "the papers" will get tired of talking about it, and any attempt to reopen it will be reprobated. As a general rule, the policy is completely successful, even where the offence is a continuing one, as when the offender remains in the office he has disgraced or has unlawfully acquired. Everybody lets the matter drop, and if he commits no new offence in the office, his friends soon begin "to point with pride" to him, and demand a higher place for him or another term. Gov. Flower has actually furnished an entertaining illustration of this state of mind in his talk about Judge Maynard, for he justifies his reappointing him by alleging that he has behaved very well on the bench since last January. This is his sole answer to the charge that Mr. Maynard's conduct in December last showed his moral and mental unfitness for any public place of trust, in that he broke the law of the State and aided and abetted in a fraud on the voters.

No one can blame the rascals in politics for taking all the advantage they can of this public readiness to accept accomplished facts as moral settlements. This readiness is simply a milder form of the unwillingness of barbarians to punish any successful crime. "The man is dead," says the Calabrian peasant, "and what is the use of killing the poor murderer?" "He has got the place," says the kindly American; "why don't you let the poor fellow alone? Do you think your growling will make him resign?" Possibly not; but no thinking man will deny that every successful attempt to prostitute public places, like that in which Judge Maynard and Gov. Flower are now engaged, in the presence of a silent public and press and bar, makes future attempts of the same kind more probable and easier of accomplishment.

The system of one protest, and no more, against acts of political villany has, as we all see and know, utterly broken down.

There is not a journalist in America whose experience has not told him that the only way of attracting the attention of the public to anything which does not immediately affect the interests of private individuals is by frequent iteration. Even far more diligent newspaper readers than the vast majority of people are, often see a thing set out fifty times in a newspaper before they rouse themselves sufficiently to find out what it is all about, like the man who came to the office of the *Tribune*, about 1860, to ask for the copy of the paper which had an article about slavery in it. Wendell Phillips made it a rule of the anti-slavery agitation never to forget or forgive a man who had ever ranged himself against human liberty, and he applied it with what was undoubtedly for his purpose wise ferocity. In the fight which the country is now waging against fraud and corruption in high places, the only remedy worth considering is remorseless pursuit of wrongdoers until they get out of public life. No man is obliged to stay in public life any more than, as has been said, to write bad sonnets. As long as wrongdoers can count on pardon and oblivion at an early date, any attack on them is useless. Apropos of the return of the Bar Association to the Maynard question, we should like to ask those who consider it either imprudent or useless, whether they have ever considered the part which the conduct of the older members of the bar in meeting cases like this one has in educating the younger generation in its duty to the community. What inference would the next generation draw from a history of the Maynard case in which it appeared that, after the conviction of the Judge of law-breaking and fraud, they had witnessed his second appointment a year later to a place in the court of last resort, in respectful silence? Would it not conclude that, in the opinion of a great profession, a corrupt judge had only to behave decently for one year to expiate all past offences and prove his fitness to dispense justice in a great community for any number of years to come? In good truth, a silent, quiescent bar, in the presence of great judicial wrongs, is one of the greatest curses that can afflict a free people.

BUSINESS ON SENTIMENTAL PRINCIPLES.

THE proceedings of a municipality are seldom of a character to arouse universal interest, but the London County Council appears likely to furnish in several respects an exception to the rule. The science of political economy, as is well known, is not at present much cultivated in England upon the lines followed with so great distinction by Ricardo and Mill and Cairnes. These eminent men regarded it as their province to determine the laws under which the production and distribution of wealth actually take place. The modern school

of professed economists has found that these laws are repugnant to the nobler nature of man, and has denounced the science that embodies them as harsh and pitiless. According to this school, it is shocking to the moral sense to speak of the "labor market," or to allude to human exertion as if it were a commodity to be bought and sold. In their view political economy is only cultivated properly by those who are under the influence of philanthropical enthusiasm, and must be transfused with ethical principles. It is the science not of what is, but of what ought to be, in the industrial world, and it is the duty of economists to see to it that the industrial world reforms itself accordingly.

Opinions of this character being extensively prevalent at the time of the constitution of the new Council for the government of London, it is not surprising that many of its members should belong to what they style the Progressive party. It is the general aim of these members to embody in legislation and eventually to establish as institutions the theories of reformed society which they have conceived, or at least to go as far in this direction as the contradictory character of many of these theories will permit. What they are substantially agreed upon is, that large accumulations of wealth in the hands of individuals exist only through injustice to the poor, and must be corrected by the imposition of taxes and the employment of labor at high wages by the State or municipality. As Mr. Tom Mann observes, the resulting increase of the rates is exactly what is wanted. It will "open up an opportunity for investment, stimulate the healthy circulation of capital, and well repay the outlay."

The first step in this direction, to which we called attention at the time, was the decision that in contracts made by the Council, it should be covenanted by the contractor that he would pay the rate of wages fixed by the trade-unions. There were those who would have required contractors to employ only union laborers, but as in some trades the unions had comparatively few members, this was at the time impracticable, although its realization is hoped for in the near future. It is not surprising that with this provision the Council has met with difficulty in getting contractors to undertake its work, and the second step has accordingly now been taken. The Council is to organize a "works department" of its own, dispensing with contractors whenever it chooses, establishing its own plant, providing its own storage and workshops, and employing its own force of laborers. These laborers are to receive, as we understand the figures, about five shillings a week above the market rate, and steady employment is to be provided for them.

As a third step, which seems to follow necessarily from the preceding, but which requires legislative sanction, a direct tax

is to be levied upon landlords. An inheritance tax upon ground rents and values is demanded; but this is only an incident. The real reform is to be in the imposition of special rates upon the owners of land or rents, coupled with a provision making void all existing contracts whereby tenants have bound themselves to pay taxes and assessments. Two proposals for the accomplishment of this reform are before the Council, but the Progressive party condemns one of them as making it possible for the landlord to add the rate in some cases to the rent, and endorses the other as rendering this evasion impossible.

As no such proposal can become effective except by act of Parliament, it would seem that landlords might possess their lands yet a while in quiet, but the reply of one of the Ministry, Mr. Shaw-Lefevre, to a deputation of the unemployed is far from reassuring. The deputation urged that Government should undertake public works for the purpose of giving employment to idle hands, and Mr. Shaw-Lefevre told them that Government was really doing a good deal in that direction, and was about to do a good deal more in clearing the site of the old Millbank Prison. This work would be turned over to contractors, as Government had no staff for the purpose of carrying out such an operation itself, but there would be a clause in the contracts in accordance with the resolution of the House of Commons, that the contractors were to pay the men they employed "the current wages." To the request that the contractors be also required to limit the day's work to eight hours, Mr. Shaw-Lefevre discreetly replied that as the work would be completed during the winter months there would be a limitation of hours by nature. It is not inopportune to recall the fact that when the French Republic undertook the enterprise of providing work for the unemployed in 1848, there were at the beginning of March about 8,000 men supposed to be idle. But a rush took place from the provinces until there were on the 20th of June 115,000 men brigaded. The burden became intolerable, the public workshops were closed, the workmen rose in revolt, and the blood of 12,000 of their number was shed before the normal status of affairs was restored.

Some further steps remain to be taken before the plans of the Progressive party attain completeness. Of these some are already in contemplation, as, that no work should be given to concerns outside of London. Bids were recently received for the construction of a ferry-boat from both London and Glasgow builders, that of the Scotch firm, who were of admitted responsibility, being nearly £1,800 lower than that of the London firm, which was for some £17,575. The committee having the matter in charge reported in favor of the London firm, and Mr. John Burns had a third of the Council with him in his contention that London workmen ought to have a

preference, and that they ought to be protected against outside competition. He should have had a majority, for nothing can be more certain than that if the rate of wages is to be artificially raised in London, shipbuilding and everything can be done cheaper elsewhere, while, unless immigration is stopped, there will be a rush of outsiders to enjoy the distribution of the spoils announced as about to take place there. The whole collectivist scheme will be shipwrecked unless effective barriers are raised about London to keep the rich people from getting out and the poor from getting in. This has been the weakness of protectionism in America, our wealthy manufacturers rushing off to Europe to spend their money, and the poor of Europe flocking to this country to compete for wages; and municipal collectivism is only protectionism writ small. In fact, Mr. Tom Mann has very honestly and consistently testified before the English Labor Commission that he is quite prepared to see the foreign trade of England ruined by the increase of wages and the shortening of working hours. He is willing to see Frenchmen, Germans, and Americans producing what they require for their own sustenance and his "own country doing the same and not more than that."

It is a startling experiment to commit the destinies of the greatest city in the world to such characters as this. It might be worth its cost were the experiment to be carried through, but this is scarcely to be expected. Were no other obstacle to arise, it would be vitiated by the starvation of the people of London, as that other classical experiment intended to demonstrate the possibility of living without food, provided the rations were gradually decreased, was frustrated by the unfortunate death of the cow just as she had been reduced to one straw a day.

THE PANAMA CORRUPTION FUND.

M. LEROY-BEAULIEU'S second article on the Panama crisis in Paris, in which he discusses more in detail the corrupt disposition made of the Company's funds, takes up the case of the press and that of members of the Chambers separately. He approves of advertising new enterprises extensively, provided it is done openly—that is, provided the advertisement is marked as such. But he intimates that most of the Panama Company's money which was spent on the press in France was spent on what we call "reading notices"—that is, on articles, apparently editorial, lauding the enterprise to the skies, and indulging in extravagant prophecies as to its success, which were, however, really contracted for as paid puffs. There is no abuse of the press more insidious than this, and when employed, as in this case, to enable speculators to capture the savings of the poor, it was more than usually base; one of the ostensible functions of the press being the protection

of the poor against this very thing. For this, however, he has no remedy to offer. The purification of the press, or, as some call it, "the elevation of journalism," in democratic countries, the best observers acknowledge to be apparently in the hands of Providence solely. Human machinery for that purpose does not now exist and is not likely to exist. Only some great moral uplifting of the human race seems likely to make sure that nobody shall start or conduct a newspaper who is not animated by a high sense of responsibility to the public.

As regards the Legislature, M. Leroy-Beaulieu shows that the disease which has appeared among the lawmakers seems to have infected the whole community. The working-classes, who rage against the corruption of the bourgeoisie, are apparently just as bad as the others. He mentions in illustration of this three cases of loss of funds by trades unions (*syndicats*) through the frauds of their officers within the past year. Everybody who touches politics seems to be either corrupt or in great danger of corruption, and he intimates broadly, what political philosophers all over the world are beginning to believe, that corruption is the endemic disease of democracies. Not that aristocracies have not been corrupt, too, but their corruption was not so peculiarly pecuniary—that is, they sold themselves for other things as well as money, such as decorations and titles, and their numbers were always, from the nature of the case, small, so that a little money went a long way with them.

To the Radicals who say that, middle-class government (the government of the shopkeepers and lawyers and other professional men) having broken down, there is nothing for it but to try Socialism—that is, to hand over all industrial enterprises to "the State" or "the municipality"—M. Leroy-Beaulieu makes the answer which we have so often made in these columns to similar suggestions, that "the State" or "municipality" would be simply the same government we have now, with a very much larger number of officers. One of the strangest delusions of the "Collectivists," Bellyamites, and the like, is that there would turn up, for their use in the administration of their extremely complicated millennium, a new breed of functionaries of the ascetic kind, who would manage the public affairs and handle public funds simply for the glory of God and the public good, without thought of self; that when New York city, for instance, was running all the urban railways, and owning all the factories and meat-shops and bakeries and clothing stores, no Hills or Crokers or Grants or Diveres or Walshes would be found among the managers of these enterprises, and that secret "pulls" and "divvies" would be unknown, and envy, hatred, and malice would play no part in the distribution of the goods or in the allotments of the task-work. The

truth is, that the tendency to multiply offices is as marked a feature of modern politics as the tendency to take bribes and steal public funds; and that under any scheme of Socialism yet propounded the number of public functionaries would be far greater than has ever yet been seen in any State, and they would be made of the same old stuff which has been for 1,800 years the despair of theologians. This would be true even of George's land scheme. The chances are that if the State was a universal landlord, the swarm who assessed the rents would put on political optimists the greatest strain they have ever undergone.

The remedy for all this—the one remedy, and that, at best, only a partial one—through legislation which M. Leroy-Beaulieu sees is, first, the taking away from the legislatures, as far as possible, the power of bestowing favors for financial or commercial purposes. No better illustration of the soundness of this position could be found than our own experience with the tariff—meaning thereby the power exercised for so many years by our Congress of raising prices by legislation on the application of individuals, for purposes of private gain. A more effective and insidious mode of corrupting politics was never invented. His second remedy—still only partial—is the vigorous restriction in the number of public offices; that is, in the amount of patronage in the hands of the Executive. As long as the Executive has much to bestow in the way of place and honors, men will seek admission to the Legislature simply to extort from it places and honors by “pressure,” or “threats,” or obstruction, or, in fact, by that combination of all sorts of hostile agencies which we call “war.” The connection of this corruption with the whole Socialistic movement of the day—that is, the tendency to treat “the State,” which is really a collection of rather inferior men, as a universal providence which is to supply everybody with money and comforts, and save him the necessity not only of being intelligent and shrewd, but even of being frugal and industrious—is not very remote and is very obvious.

WASHINGTON RELICS IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, December 13, 1892.

AMONG the papers of John Hall which came into my hands while writing the Life of Thomas Paine, is a letter to John Coltman, Leicester, England, May 16, 1788. Hall, a mechanical engineer, had emigrated to America, where he assisted Paine in making the model of his iron bridge. The letter, which I have printed in my Life of Paine (ii, p. 469), relates to an overcoat which Gen. Washington, during the Revolution, gave Paine, when that of the latter had been stolen. Hall had sent the overcoat to Mr. Coltman, and it occurred to me recently to inquire whether there was any such overcoat in the Town Museum at Leicester. To my astonishment, I was informed by the polite curator, Mr. Montague Browne, that, though they did not have such an overcoat, they did have a waistcoat of Gen.

Washington's. There was no way in which Hall's words could be made to mean a waistcoat, and the latter, which indeed is a comparatively recent acquisition, has this label: “This Waistcoat was purchased by Mr. Mark Bowden of Devonport from an aged lady, the niece of an old gentleman who, with his wife, used to purchase Washington's clothes.” The waistcoat was presented to the Museum by Mr. Bowden in 1881. It is before me as I write, but is not easy to describe. It is of white silk, or taffety, with light blue stripes (longitudinal), the alternate white and blue stripes being of equal width (about 1-20th of an inch). The front edges and the pocket flaps are elegantly embroidered with gold thread, the buttons being made of silk and exactly matching the taffety. The fineness of the front is in curious contrast with the coarse canvas of the back.

It was rather droll to find a waistcoat of Washington where I had sought his overcoat. Searches having failed to discover the latter, I had reached the conclusion that it had been lost among the Coltmans, or perhaps gone to pieces—for it was given to Paine when the army was near Princeton, or about 118 years ago. But Mr. Montague Browne investigated the records of the Museum, and found the following entry in the list of the contents of the Museum when it was handed over to the corporation of Leicester in 1849:

“A button with part of a Military Coat worn by General Washington at Bunker's Hill—Miss Coltman.”

The relic has not been found. An official who has been connected with the Museum for forty years remembers nothing of it. The button may have on it some interesting device, and I still hope that it may be discovered. I am not enough of a relic-worshipper to care much for anything but the button, which would probably have some engraving. There are several other Washington relics that must be in England. Lady Russell tells me that there is at Swallowfield Park “a very nice stick” which belonged to Gen. Washington, and which came to her husband through Admiral Bergerette.

The Town Museum at Leicester possesses four original letters of Washington to Mrs. Macaulay Graham, who, with her husband, passed ten days at Mount Vernon in June, 1785. They are very neatly written, and the wrappers of two are preserved, bearing the usual seal (griffin crest); one of the seals is black. Two of the letters (November 16, 1787, and January 9, 1790) are in Sparks, but I have not seen in print those subjoined:

MOUNT VERNON, Jan'y 10th, 1786.

MADAM

I wish any expression would do justice to my feelings, that I might convey to you adequate ideas of my gratitude for those favourable sentiments with which the letter you did me the honour to write to me from New York is replete. The plaudits of a Lady, so celebrated as Mrs. Macaulay Graham, could not fail of making a deep impression on my sensibility; and my pride was more than a little flattered, by your approbation of my conduct through an arduous and painful contest.

During the time in which we supposed you to have been on your journey to New York, we participated the distresses which we were sure you must have experienced on account of the temperature of the air, which exceeded the heats common in this country at the most inclement season; and though your letter was expressive of the great fatigue you had undergone, still we rejoiced that the journey was attended with no worse consequences.

I hope, and most sincerely wish, that this letter may find you happily restored to your friends in England, whose anxiety for your return must, I am persuaded have been great,

—and that you will have experienced no inconvenience from your voyage to America.

Mrs. Washington who has a grateful sense of your favourable mention of her—and Fanny Bassett and Major Washington who, since we had the honour of your company, have joined their hands and fortunes, unite with me in respectful compliments to you—and in every good wish that can render you and Mr. Graham happy. The little folks enjoy perfect health.—The boy, whom you would readily have perceived was the pet of the family, affords promising hopes from maturer age.

With sentiments of great respect and esteem

I have the honor to be

Madam,

Y^r most Obed^t and very H^{ble} St

G^d WASHINGTON.

Mrs. Macaulay Graham.

PHILADELPHIA, Feby. 10th, 1791.

MADAM

At the same time that I acknowledge the receipt of your letter of June last, with which I have been honored, I must beg you to accept my best thanks for your treatise on Education which accompanied it.

The anxiety which you express for the welfare of this country demands a proper acknowledgment; and the political sentiments which are contained in your letter merit a more particular reply than the multifarious and important business in which I am constantly engaged (especially while Congress are in session) will permit me to make.—I must therefore, Madam, rely upon your goodness to receive this short letter as an acknowledgment of your polite attention, and beg you to be assured that my not entering at this time into the subject of your favor does not proceed from a want of that consideration with which I have the honor to be

Madam

Your most Obed^t H^{ble} Ser.

G^d WASHINGTON.

Mrs. C. Macaulay Graham.

The letters are interesting examples of Washington's courtly grace. The “Major Washington” mentioned in the first letter was George Augustine, the General's nephew, who married Martha Washington's niece. The “little folks” are the Custis children, the “pet of the family” being G. W. P. Custis.

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

THE MEMOIRS OF COUNT CHEVERNY.

I.

PARIS, December 8, 1892.

THE Life of Henri de Virieu, written from original documents by Count Costa de Beauregard, shows us the period of the French Revolution under its most terrible aspect; it leaves on the mind an impression of sadness which can hardly be forgotten. Virieu appears like one of the victims of fatality, born to suffer and to die. A very different impression is produced by the memoirs of the Comte de Cheverny. These memoirs, published by M. Robert de Crèvecoeur, keep us nearly all the time in the years of the reigns of Louis XV. and Louis XVI. which preceded the Revolution—happy years, of which Talleyrand used to say, “Those who have not lived through them do not know what a pleasure it is to live.” Cheverny's memoirs were not written from day to day; they were written, he says, “for myself and for my sole pleasure,” in 1795, after the Terror. The author sought to distract himself; they are more anecdotal than historical. Cheverny does not pretend to be a prophet. Not only did he not see the Revolution coming, he does not understand it after it has come. He is thoroughly “ancien régime.”

Jean Nicolas Dufort de Cheverny was born in 1731 in Paris. His family did not belong to the *noblesse d'épée*, but only to the *noblesse de robe*. His father, who was very wealthy, had bought the beautiful estate of Saint-

Leu-Taverny in the valley of Montmorency. When he came of age, his parents bought for him the office of "Introducer of Ambassadors." He was only twenty years old, and had to learn all the minutæ of etiquette. This dignity brought him at times in contact with the sovereign. He made his début at Compiègne, where Louis XV. liked to hunt in the forest. A small item will give an idea of the ways of the Court: "Strangers who were presented could accompany the King in the hunt. The Introducer, at their request, concerted with the Premier (the first gentleman of the bedchamber), and there were always six horses ready for the strangers. This custom had been kept up since Louis XIV."

The first great function in which Cheverny took part was the presentation of Kaunitz, the new Ambassador from Austria. The account of it occupies many pages. I will, however, give but a single detail: in the long procession of *ga'a* carriages was the livery of Kaunitz, sixty silk-stockinged footmen in blue, with embroidery of silver and gold. After having seen the King and the Royal Family, Kaunitz asked to see Mme. de Pompadour, the favorite, and, it may be said, the real Queen of France. She had her apartment above the King's apartment in every royal palace; all the ambassadors visited her regularly, except the Papal Nuncio.

Cheverny became one of the members of the society of Mme. d'Épinay. The reader of her *Memoirs* and *Letters* knows the *La Livois*—de Bellegarde, d'Épinay, de la Briche. Two of these were, like Cheverny, introducers of ambassadors. The splendid château of La Chevette was the centre of this gay society. Cheverny became one of the actors in its theatre. One day, when he was at Compiègne, the King announced to him the death of one of his colleagues, with the greatest indifference. "I have a hundred times asked myself why a king who was very sociable and polite, seemed so insensible to the death of those who lived round him. I have found but one solution: a king has continually a living picture round him; his interior service, his exterior service changes every three months; it is a magic lantern. Then, for every person who dies, he has a place to give and can make somebody happy."

Cheverny was not long in perceiving that society was cut up into coteries and sets. That it should be so now is not surprising; but you find this clannish feeling already in the society of the eighteenth century, which was homogeneous, and which had not yet gone through the ordeal of the Revolution. Society was never organized in France on the same principles as in England; there was always a tendency to the formation of small and exclusive groups. It is partly because people like to be more intimate in France, and partly because the national vanity is satisfied with the exclusiveness of a coterie. "When you have lived long and examined the manners of an immense city like Paris, in a tranquil period when the laws and the police are in vigor, such as the reign of Louis XV., all societies are coteries, beginning with the Court. Mme. de Pompadour had her coterie, notwithstanding the crowd of courtiers who surrounded her; the King had his own; so had the Duc de la Vallière, the Prince Soubise, the Marquis de Chauvelin, the Marquis de Livry, etc." The Queen's coterie met at Mme. de Luynes's, and was composed of what Cheverny calls the *sultanes Valides* of the Court. The Dauphiness and the Dauphin had their small set of intimates. The sisters of the

King, Mesdames, led the dullest and most uniform life possible; they admitted but few ladies. The ministers, also, D'Argenson and Machault, had their coterie. The brother of Mme. de Pompadour, Poisson, who assumed the name of Marquis de Marigny and became a *cordon bleu* and a superintendent of the fine arts, had become a power, and had his coterie.

The King lived solely for hunting and shooting; he was out every day except Sunday in one of the royal forests. He was kindly, polite, but distant; he hardly ever spoke more than a few words, except about the hunt.

"Lansmat, his first *piqueur*, was the man whom he treated best, whether in his Cabinet or in the field. He never spoke to anybody except to him, or to the grooms who rode with him. One day, at Fontainebleau, I witnessed this *boutade* of Lansmat's: the run had been hard, two stags had been brought to bay; horses, dogs, men, were worn out, and we wisely rejoined the carriages. The King, with that voice which would have distinguished him in a hundred thousand, calls for Lansmat. 'Lansmat, are the dogs tired?' 'Yes, sire, rather tired.' 'Are the horses also?' 'I think so.' 'Never mind,' said the King, 'I will hunt day after to-morrow.' 'Yes, sire, I understand; but what grieves me,' said he, on rejoining his equipage, 'is that I always hear it asked if the horses and dogs are tired, and never the men.' This was said so that the King did not lose a word. The hunt took place as usual."

Cheverny does, however, defend Louis XV. against the imputation of absolute heartlessness. It has become legendary that when Mme. Pompadour died, the King watched the funeral pass by the windows of the palace at Versailles, and that, noticing the rain fall in torrents, he merely said: "La Marquise a mauvais temps!" Cheverny was with the King at the time; he tells us that the King saw the funeral go by from a balcony; he remained silent, but great tears were falling from his eyes, and when the procession was gone, he said, with a deep sigh: "These are the only services which I can render her!"

Cheverny gives us many details concerning his own liaison with a married lady, Mme. B. (we have only the initial of her name). This passion came to an end when he married a cousin of his; he became a good and faithful husband. His household in the Rue d'Anjou may be cited as the type of a good establishment in the eighteenth century. "My household," he says, "was composed of a *Suisse*, a *maître d'hôtel*, a *femme de charge*, a maid, a cook, a second cook, and two domestics for myself. My wife had two domestics for herself. I had six horses—two for my wife, four for myself—two coachmen, a postillion, three stable-horses, and a stableman."

The account of the intrigues which followed the attempt made by Damiens to assassinate Louis XV. has an historical interest. Louis XV. seems to have been much more frightened than hurt; he was surrounded by his family and was almost ready to dismiss Mme. de Pompadour. She contrived to reassure the King, to persuade him (what was true) that Damiens was a mere madman, and not the instrument of a party. After a short visit to her, Louis XV. dressed as usual, and the day after he began his usual life of hunting and of suppers in the *petits appartements*. "The pious cabal was disappointed; the Marquise became stronger than ever." Machault and D'Argenson were exiled from court.

Cheverny became very ill in 1757 and was threatened with consumption; the doctors sent him to the South; the account of his journey has no great interest. We find him again at his post with the Court in 1758. When M. de Stainville was made Minister in the place of

M. de Bernis, the first day that he entered the Council-room he took, by the King's order, the first place; the other ministers seemed astonished. "Sire," said Stainville, "these gentlemen—" "They have nothing to say about it; I make you Duke and Peer." From this time, Stainville was called Duc de Choiseul. A great intimacy sprang up between him and Mme. de Pompadour. Choiseul was as magnificent in his ministry as he had been in his embassies. No minister ever carried his official style of living to such a pitch. "At that time people dined at two o'clock precisely, and all the foreigners who had been presented, all the courtiers, were admitted to his table. His great table had thirty-five covers, and there was a second one all ready. A servant counted the people who came in, and as soon as the number exceeded thirty-five the second table was spread. His silver, which was extremely abundant, was superb." The court became very brilliant during his ministry; balls, suppers, theatrical representations became the order of the day. The favor of Choiseul was supreme; his sister, the Comtesse de Choiseul, Canoness of Remiremont (an abbey of noble ladies, to enter which it was necessary to prove so many quarters of nobility without a flaw, and which the Princesses of Bourbon could not enter), never rose for anybody, not even for Ambassadors. "If a door was open, you heard her say with a firm voice, 'Ambassador of Spain, shut that door,'" and he shut it respectfully. Choiseul married his sister to the Duc de Gramont. He was greatly attached to her, and she became the real mistress of his house, as his own wife was very timid and complacent. The nephew of the Minister, the Duc de Lauzun, made his début at Court, and his name was soon in everybody's mouth. He became the friend and companion of the Duc de Chartres.

Cheverny's life was less agitated than that of Lauzun and his boon companions. He had among his friends some literary men—Sedaine, for instance—even an actor, the famous singer Jolyotte; he saw the members of the diplomatic corps, with whom his functions brought him in contact; his wife received every day; she had a supper in her own house once a week, and supped out three times a week. Cheverny hunted in the forest of Senart regularly with the Prince of Conti's equipage. At every page of his memoirs, you cannot help being struck by the sociability of the French in the eighteenth century; people seemed to live only for each other. There are no general or philosophical remarks; not a word of politics except where politics affects the status of his friends. Life was, so to speak, theatrical, and every actor tried to look his best and to play the most amusing part.

Correspondence.

THE MASSACHUSETTS AMENDMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The large vote in opposition to the Constitutional Amendment in Massachusetts may not be such a "mystery" as you suppose on p. 465. Probably many of the 68,045 who voted against it did so, as I certainly did, for the reason that it seemed to them not undesirable that the Governor of the State should have more at stake in its welfare than the mere payment of a poll-tax implies.

Yours truly,

WILLIAM S. APPLETON.

Boston, December 22, 1892.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I think it is admitted that persons familiar with the "Yes" and "No" at the foot of the ballot, supposed they were voting on the liquor question. I have found several such.

S.

BOSTON, December 24, 1892.

LORD LOFTUS'S 'DIPLOMATIC REMINISCENCES.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: After reading the review which appeared in a recent number of the *Nation* of Lord Augustus Loftus's 'Diplomatic Reminiscences,' I took up the book and chanced to light upon a sin of omission committed in the third chapter of the first volume. In the author's roster of the diplomatic body stationed at Berlin in 1837, no mention is made of the United States representatives. This oversight would not be notable if the list did not contain names of no more importance, and, in some cases, of far less importance, than those of the diplomatists accredited from Washington. Of course Lord Loftus gives precedence to the envoys of the great European Powers; but when he remembers the Dutch General "who fought at Waterloo"; the Neapolitan Baron who was "very agreeable, with some humor and wit and of course devoted to the cause of absolutism"; the Sardinian Count who, with his wife, "dispensed their hospitalities with grace and cordiality"; and the Swedish Minister who "was distinguished on all Oriental subjects"—one cannot help asking how he forgot our own Minister, Henry Wheaton. For, even before being sent to Berlin, Mr. Wheaton had been the American representative at the Danish Court, and had published twelve volumes of Supreme Court Reports and two of his able works on international law.

And as Lord Loftus also speaks of several of the Secretaries of Legation, it is, further, somewhat surprising that he passes over in silence the then Secretary of the United States Legation, Theodore S. Fay, especially as Mr. Fay had published three or four volumes of fiction before he arrived in Berlin, and was the associate and friend of George P. Morris and N. P. Willis, and so must have been congenial to Lord Loftus, who was "fond of reading and of literature," as he himself tells us two or three times.

When this matter was pointed out to Lord Loftus, he replied by letter as follows:

"I am glad that you have called my attention to my omission in not mentioning the name of Mr. Wheaton, the representative of the United States at Berlin in 1837. It was certainly not done intentionally, but by inadvertence. We were on intimate terms of friendship, and I had the greatest regard and admiration for him, as well as for his kind and amiable family. It is not necessary for me to mention his high order of abilities. The world is fully cognizant of them through his valuable work on international law, which is the guiding element of modern diplomacy; and his name will be handed down to future generations with those of his renowned predecessors, Grotius, Puffendorf, and Vattel.

"I knew Mr. Fay for some years at Berlin. He was an estimable colleague and much liked. He was also a man of letters, and if I mistake not, wrote a very pretty novel on the subject of duelling."

THEODORE STANTON.

PARIS, December 8, 1892.

Notes.

PROF. J. K. HOSMER, Librarian of the Public Library at Minneapolis, is engaged upon a Life

of Thomas Hutchinson, Governor of Massachusetts Bay and historian of the colony, whose Diary and Letters have been published by a descendant and are essential to any proper study of the Revolution. Prof. Hosmer, already known as the biographer of Sir Harry Vane, has examined all the Hutchinson MSS. available in this country, together with much other unpublished matter pertinent to the Governor and his time.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert announce 'Bible Studies,' being readings in the early books of the Old Testament, with familiar comment, given by Henry Ward Beecher in his Sunday evening services in 1878-'79.

About five years ago there was begun in Calcutta a translation of the greatest Indian epic, the 'Mahābhārata.' Since then the work has gone steadily forward, the publication being in monthly parts, and is now approaching completion. The favor with which it has been received has doubtless had something to do with a recent similar undertaking. The first three numbers of an English translation of 'Charaka-Samhitā,' the most ancient known Indian work on medicine, are now ready for distribution to subscribers. Aside from its general value as a contribution to our knowledge of the state of India while it was as yet almost unknown to Europeans, the work cannot fail to excite the interest of physicians and students. The translation is issued in monthly parts, and will probably be completed within four years. The price of subscription in the United States is £3, which may be sent in one remittance or in four instalments to the publisher and translator, Abinash Chandra Kaviratna, No. 200 Cornwallis Street, Calcutta.

A real want of the library is satisfied by Mr. Charles G. Crump's 'Poems, Dialogues in Verse, and Epigrams by Walter Savage Landor,' in two handsome volumes (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan). The verse of Landor is voluminous, and is not now accessible in a complete state. The present edition, though it contains a large quantity of his work, is a selection, and furnishes, of course, the best of it, both dramatic and lyric. It is significant of the neglect of Landor that here is to be found, for the first time since the original appearance of the poem in 1802, a part of "The Phœceans." An introduction is given by the editor, and there is the usual amount of bibliographical and other notes. In default of a complete edition, the present serves as a practical equivalent.

Howell's 'Epistolæ Ho-Eliaŋæ,' or 'Familiar Letters,' which holds an exceptional place in the regard of literary men, has at last found a competent editor in Joseph Jacobs, who publishes the work in two elegant volumes (London: David Nutt), and annotates it with such a body of notes as can be gathered only by the labor of years. The introduction is one of those exhaustive monographs that are final, and leaves to the future only the possible correction of obscure details. The editor leaves the authenticity of the letters "still half in shadow," but thinks that it can fairly be accepted till disproved. In his efforts to explain allusions and identify persons he has been successful, but a few of these have refused to yield even to such careful and minute inquiry. Of the letters themselves it is superfluous to speak, as they are so well known favorites for the recreation of the leisurely reader, and have been praised by the lovers of entertainment, notably by Thackeray, in a way to attract all to whose tastes they would naturally appeal. The present edition displaces all others as the standard form of this classic.

John Selden's 'Table Talk' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) has received similar editorial care from the hands of Mr. Samuel Harvey Reynolds. His introduction and notes show the same exacting standard of exhaustive treatment, and the text, moreover, has been revised and brought to as much perfection as is possible. The editor has used in correction of the old text the two Harleian and the Sloane MSS., and has followed especially the Harleian MS. 1315. He gives notice of all textual alterations of importance based on such sources, and also of other changes which he has felt at liberty to make in correction of obvious errors. The edition is thus, if not one that establishes the text beyond doubt, a scholarly and faithful one, and laboriously done, and must be consulted as the highest authority in respect to the work of Selden.

The "Cambridge Shakespeare" (Macmillan), of the successive issues of which we have taken occasion to speak with especial recommendation on the ground of its cheapness as a great standard edition, nears its completion with the eighth volume, containing "Lear," "Othello," "Antony and Cleopatra," and "Cymbeline." The public are to be congratulated on such an opportunity to purchase at a reasonable rate so excellent an edition of the greatest and most fruitful of English books.

Several works bearing on Lord Chesterfield, which have appeared in a brief time, seem to show a vitality in his literary reputation that is on the whole surprising. The late edition by Dr. John Bradshaw, 'The Letters of Philip Dormer Stanhope, Earl of Chesterfield, with the Characters,' edited with Introduction, Notes, and Index, in three bulky volumes (Scribners), professes to give a few new letters, and promises more to come from the Newcastle correspondence. Some of the earlier letters are omitted on the score of their lack of interest, and all have been "edited" in respect to phrase with a view to their being read in mixed company, though why these letters should be supposed likely to be used for such entertainment passes comprehension. The edition is thus neither complete nor accurate, nor is it up to the mark of excellence in other ways; and as other editions, with which it would not suffer comparison on the scholarly side, are in the market, there seems no good reason for its existence.

'The Diary and Letters of Madame D'Arblay (Frances Burney)' (Frederick Warne & Co.) is edited, with notes and Macaulay's essay, by Mr. W. C. Ward, in three handy volumes. The edition is not complete, but contains a selection from the full work, and is meant as a popular abridgment, giving the more entertaining passages. It would have been more frank, to say the least, to have stated the fact that it is a selection upon the title-page, as the unilateral purchaser might easily be deceived as to just what he is buying.

Mr. George Saintsbury issues in the "Pocket Library" a welcome selection of 'Elizabethan and Jacobean Pamphlets' (Macmillan). He includes one each by Lodge, Lyly, Breton, Greene, Harvey, Nash, and Dekker. Greene's "Groat's Worth of Wit" is especially welcome, because of its bearing on Shakspeare and the desirability of having it within reach of college students, under the newer methods of literature-teaching here; and Lodge's "Reply to Gosson" and Dekker's "Gull's Horn-book" are also likely to be used, each in its own way. The publication, which is cheap and convenient, confers an obligation on those students who are out of the reach of the older

and rare reprints, and illustrates for them an important phase of Elizabethan literature and life.

Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole edits a small popular volume of the 'Selected Poems of Robert Burns,' with a biographical sketch and notes (T. Y. Crowell). The number of poems included is large, in proportion to the size of the book, and the selections could not go far wrong; the notes are in the main of dates, places, and persons, and the biography is of the scissory kind. A few illustrations are given, but the volume will not be sought for their sake.

'The Best Letters of Percy B. Shelley, edited with an introduction by Shirley Carter Hughson' (Chicago: A. C. McCurg & Co.), is a collection of 119 letters of the poet, and, notwithstanding the title, professes to include practically all his correspondence. As Shelley's letters are scattered through many publications, it is not surprising that some, and those of the "best," should have escaped notice; but the collection is a fairly adequate one, and enables the public to obtain in a convenient and cheap form the best of Shelley's prose, which is to be found in these familiar letters to his friends. They are, indeed, among the most delightful letters of the century.

If school-books could help criticism, there would be every reason to expect a renaissance of the art, for there has been an unusual amount of republication of books on the principles of criticism in the last two years. 'Wordsworth's Prefaces and Essays on Poetry, with Letter to Lady Beaumont (1798-1845), edited with Introduction and Notes by A. J. George' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.), is the latest of these little reprints, and is well edited, with a survey of illustrative passages from other authors. Of the writers so cited we observe that out of thirty-four, not all eminent, only three are American. Prof. Albert S. Cook's 'Art of Poetry: the Poetical Treatises of Horace, Vida, and Boileau, with the translations by Howes, Pitt, and Soame' (Boston: Ginn & Co.) is an attempt of the same sort at the inculcation of critical precept. The introduction and notes are serviceable, and the volume will be found a convenient text-book for use or reference in colleges where the subject is taught.

'Six Centuries of English Poetry, from Tennyson to Chaucer: Typical Selections from the Great Poets, by James Baldwin' (Silver, Burdett & Co.), is a text-book that has a curious effect of progressing backwards like a crab as one turns its pages. The inversion of the title is justified by the contents. It is somewhat startling, but may be significant, that Byron is omitted from the list of the *dii majores*, which consists for our century of Tennyson, Wordsworth, Coleridge, Shelley, and Keats. Notes that can only be described as pedagogic are given in abundance, and the references are largely to English critics of the second or a lower class. The sort of teaching suggested by the book is an advance on the old methods, but illustrates the breaking up of conservatism rather than the coming of the new education.

The 'Browning Year-Book' (E. P. Dutton & Co.) is a handy volume of its kind, with quotations for each day of the year, which are to be read as on a calendar. The obvious criticism is that, while one may tear off the leaf of the calendar day by day and be saluted with a verse for a moment, it is not to be expected that one will take up a book and read a line without anticipating time and reading on. The volume amounts to no more

than a disjointed collection of disjointed thoughts.

The holiday edition of Page's popular story, 'Marse Chan' (Scribners), with the illustrations of Smedley, is a beautifully printed and attractive volume, in which the refined and finished workmanship of the artist is as noticeable, and the harmony of his designs with the general temper of the text as praiseworthy, as is the literary merit of the familiar tale which is illustrated. The separate publication of the story in such a shape is one sign more that 'Marse Chan' will go into the catalogue of our most successful and characteristic American short stories, which live by their own right.

The topography of literature is an interesting subject, and occasionally it affords a good book, a narrative of literary pilgrimages or a description of the landscapes of poets; but seldom does it happen that the geography of genius is so elaborately set forth, and so pleasantly, with a touch of antiquarianism and of literary worship, and especially with the feeling of local attachment, as in Mr. J. A. Erskine Stuart's 'The Literary Shrines of Yorkshire: the Literary Pilgrim in the Dales' (Longmans). Yorkshire has had a long and notable connection with literature in England, and has found in Mr. Stuart a chronicler of the best sort. The volume is, of course, illustrated with portraits, views, and sketches, to bring the country and its people before the eye, and the text goes from watershed to watershed with the disposition to take each village at its historic and intellectual best, as is right; and one of the results is that impression of the wealth of the past in England which is commonly felt in respect to history, but less in respect to literature. A list of subscribers at the end gives an old-fashioned quality to the volume which is in complete harmony with its subject, its manner, and its cuts.

Edinburgh has had chroniclers of all sorts in plenty, but the city holds its personal charm, and Mr. Masson's last bulky volume, 'Edinburgh: Sketches and Memories' (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan), gathers up what he has written of it through many years pleasantly to the reader. Its literary history is briefly reviewed in the last paper, and its prospect of a library for all Scotland there dwelt on is a sign that it may have a future as well as a past. Sir Walter Scott and Carlyle, Dr. John Brown, Queen Mary, Dundas are the names that are most prominent on the pages; and, lacking a local history, one may survey Edinburgh life in these successive essays as a continuous story, with a strong sense of its significance as well as of its picturesqueness.

Mr. Austin Dobson has collected, under the title 'Eighteenth Century Vignettes' (Dodd, Mead & Co.), a number of brief sketches of men and things of the last century, which he contributed to the *Christian Union*, and has added a few from other places of publication. They are light as thistledown, and as graceful in their sailing down the air of fame; but their appearances or disappearances are not matters of moment. The dozen portraits are an ornament to the prettily bound book.

The amount of gossip in a century is generally believed to be large, and that which gets into books is not inconsiderable; but the quantity of it may be better suspected if one takes up the two great volumes which appear entitled 'Gossip of the Century: Personal and Traditional Memories—Social, Literary, Artistic' (Macmillan). The work, which is ponderous in everything but thought, is a rambling encyclopædia of memoirs, biographies, and cog-

nate books on courts and professions and everybody who was nobody, all arranged with agreeable variety and vivacity. The historic and literary portions are tolerably familiar to readers, but the mass of matter upon music, dancing, acting, painting, and sculpture is treasure-trove for those who have interest in the contemporary history of these arts. Personality is naturally a leading interest, and anecdotes are the pabulum of arrested oblivion in this case. Cuts, some of them with the value of curiosity, are sprinkled over the pages, and an index makes accessible what inquisitiveness will like to dip into, but only senility has time to read.

'Calidore, and Miscellanea' (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan) is the ninth volume in Dr. Garnett's popular edition of Peacock's novels, and brings the series pleasantly to an end. 'The Four Ages of Poetry,' interesting as having given occasion for Shelley's 'Deafence,' is one of the miscellaneous pieces included, and 'Horæ Dramaticæ' gives an example of Peacock's scholarship. Sir Edward Strachey contributes a short paper of reminiscences of Peacock as he appeared to his schoolboy eyes and was traditionally known by family anecdote, written with admirable feeling and wholly honorable to Peacock's kindlier side.

Dr. Francis E. Abbot's 'Way Out of Agnosticism' has been translated, from the second edition, into German by Dr. Hermann Schönfeld of the Columbian University at Washington, and published in Berlin under the title, 'Der Weg aus dem Agnosticismus; oder die Philosophie der freien Religion.'

'The Memorial Volume on the Centennial of Washington's Inauguration' published by the Messrs. Appleton finds, as well it may, a steady demand. The remainder of the thousand copies once disposed of, the plates will be destroyed. The volume is rich in historic narrative and in portraiture.

Parts 8 and 9 of the great Atlas to accompany the official records of the Union and Confederate armies, in course of publication by the War Department, comprise maps of the scene of operations in the Gulf, along the Mississippi, by Vicksburg, at Gettysburg (one after a clever horseback reconnaissance), before Petersburg, at Chancellorsville and Fredericksburg, at Harper's Ferry, at Winchester, in Charleston harbor, etc. These maps, sketches, memoranda, profiles, etc., form an invaluable body of evidence for the student of the civil war.

The *School Review*, edited by President Schurman of Cornell, will appear next month, and will be devoted entirely to the field of secondary education. An "outlook article" is promised for each month, and this survey of notable occurrences will be followed by original articles, signed reviews of current educational literature, and summaries of articles in foreign periodicals. The department of reviews will be watched with interest, since it is apt to be the weak point in educational journals. Dr. Frank Thilly, Ithaca, N. Y., is the managing editor and publisher.

The quarterly publication of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, known as the *Technology Quarterly*, has heretofore had no official relation to that great school. It is now to be adopted by the Society of Arts and to contain the Proceedings of that body, and will be used to foster the interest of the alumni in their alma mater.

Worthington's *Illustrated Magazine and Literary Treasury* is a new candidate for public favor, which has been founded in Hartford,

Conn. It has nothing individual as yet in its conception.

There is nothing better about *Vogue*, the "new weekly illustrated society journal of fashion" and ceremonial than its typographical good looks. It belongs in the same family with *Life*. It is published at No. 61 Union Place, New York.

The December number of the Brooklyn *Packer Alumna* is entitled to the credit of calling attention, in its book reviews, to a certain G. E. Lessing—presumably a German—who, it seems, has produced an unusually clever treatise upon the limits of painting and poetry, under the title of "Laocoon." "By illustrations from ancient art and literature," says the reviewer, "by quotations from classic and modern critics, Mr. Lessing illustrates the realms of poetry and art, where they unite and where diverge, and with his keen insight make [probably a mere slip for *makes*] both art and literature of greater value to the reader." It seems that Mr. Lessing's work has before this been introduced to English readers, for the well-informed reviewer speaks of the present as "this new English translation." Mr. Lessing is evidently a writer of genuine promise, who is destined to make his way and to be heard from again.

At the first meeting of the French Academy in the present month, it was decided that the three chairs then vacant should be filled by an election on February 2. Since then another seat has become empty. At present only the following candidates have announced themselves: M. Berthelot, for the chair of Renan; M. Thureau-Dangin, for that of Camille Rousset; MM. Henri de Bornier, de la Villeherve, and Gilbert-Augustin Thierry, for that of Marmier. Zola is a candidate for all three of the chairs, and has, one would think, a likelihood of obtaining one of them. The French mind is not so dull as to miss the amusing side of the spectacle which the Academy presents with the author of 'Madame Chrysanthème' inside it, while the author of the 'Débâcle' is excluded.

—While the *American Meteorological Journal* for December embraces articles of undoubted value upon electrical storms, automatic rain gauges, and sunshine recorders, investigation of thunder-storms, and the remarkable aurora of last July, one short letter from Mr. W. T. Blythe, an observer of the U. S. Weather Bureau, contains more of merely popular interest than all these scientific articles together. During last August Mr. Blythe made careful observations of the temperature of the sea-water at Atlantic City, with the result that the direction of the wind appears to be a most important factor in the varying heat and cold of the water. For instance, on August 12, the wind had been blowing southwest for forty-eight hours, during which the temperature of both air and water rose continually. A change to the west and northwest caused a fall of nearly ten degrees in the water-temperature, while the warmth of the air remained almost the same. Mr. Blythe thinks it quite possible, from a series of observations during successive years, to predict very accurately the bathing conditions for twenty-four or even forty-eight hours in advance. The fact that the daily newspapers published the data regularly, and many of the principal hotels and bath-houses called for them daily, and kept them posted in bulletin form for the information of their patrons; and also that each of the two commercial and two railroad telegraph companies called for and distributed the data free to principal points on

their lines throughout Pennsylvania and New Jersey, seems to be sufficient evidence that the information was sought after by the public. Another correspondent of the *Journal*, in a following communication, calls attention to the peculiar instinct for foretelling weather-conditions possessed by certain animals. Snails, for instance, are not often seen abroad except before rain, when certain species are noticed to present an unusual yellowish appearance (which becomes bluish after the rain), and some of them, in anticipation of moisture, expose certain indentations to collect it. Spiders sometimes make changes in their web before a storm, apparently to protect it from damage. It would seem that further investigation along these suggestive, if humble, lines may not be beneath the notice of the weather forecaster.

—*Polybiblion* records a contribution to the Homeric question which is too good to be left buried among its Notes. The Abbé Fourrière has attempted to demonstrate that Homer is a plagiarist, that he copied, or travestied the Bible. *Polybiblion* called the Abbé's parallelisms "mere superficial and valueless coincidences." The Abbé, replying in the *Revue d'Exégèse Mythologique*, complained that his reviewer had not quoted any examples. He had better have kept silent; for the four which *Polybiblion* then quoted could not be surpassed for absurdity and inconclusiveness even by Ignatius Donnelly and Mrs. Pott:

Song of Solomon, iii. 1. By night on my bed I sought him whom my soul loveth; I sought him and found him not.

iii. 2. My beloved is gone down into his garden.

Kings vii. 28. And the work of the bases was on this manner. They had borders, and the borders were between the ledges. 29. . . . There were lions, oxen, and cherubim.

Joel, ii. 8. And the Lord shall utter his voice.

Iliad, 6:369. So spake the plumed Hector, and withdrew, And reached his pleasant palace, but found not White-armed Andromache within.

381. For she Was in the tower.

11:34. On its disk Were twenty bosses of white tin, and one Of tawny bronze just in the midst, where glared A Gorgon's head with angry eyes.

11:10. Loud was the voice, and terrible, in which she [Strife] shouted from her station to the Greeks.

—The third volume to appear in the International Theological Library is 'Apologetics,' by Prof. A. B. Bruce (Scribner). It is pitched in a moderate key throughout, and departs so far from both the methods and results of the traditional works of its class, which smite the unbeliever hip and thigh, that it will doubtless draw more than one protest against *istis defensioibus* from those who would see Agag hewed into smaller pieces. Prof. Bruce fairly warns off in his preface "dogmatic believers" who would have their faith triumphantly defended at all possible points of assault, as also "dogmatic unbelievers," whom he refuses to attempt to convince or confound, preferring to address himself to "men whose sympathies are with Christianity, but whose faith is stifled or weakened by anti-Christian prejudices of varied nature and origin." This aim determines the tone and method of the book. There is no fresh threshing out of the philosophical difficulties which underlie all theological difficulties, there is no discussion of inspiration, prophecy, or the canon, there is no running amuck with modern science, but a patient and scholarly presentation of Christianity under aspects best fitted to commend it to "ingenuous and truth-loving minds." The ordinary theistic arguments are passed in review, only to bring up with the comment: "It would seem as if the way of wisdom were to abstain from all attempts at proving the divine existence, and, assuming as a datum

that God is, to restrict our inquiries to *what He is*" (p. 158). In the chapters which relate to the Scriptures, the point of view is that of one frankly accepting the main results of modern Biblical criticism. The philosophical and scientific difficulties connected with the miraculous are expressly waived as a question which "cannot be gone into here," and the frank confession is made that "miracles cannot be offered as evidences of Christianity now with the confidence" of "a past age." Prof. Bruce has brought sound learning and conscientiousness to his task, and has shown how, at least in his own case, a devout and manly faith is consistent with the abandonment of much that the vast majority of Christian apologists would still call essential to Christianity.

—A handful of theological books of an apologetic tenor must be yet more briefly dismissed. Canon Driver's 'Sermons on Subjects Connected with the Old Testament' (London: Methuen) is intended to show how criticism may be made to subserve devotional ends. It seems to us, however, that the scholar gets the better of the preacher, and that the pious exhortations tacked on his discussions show as manifest a cleavage as used to appear between the body and the epilogue of the Bridgewater Treatises. Sermons, or, as he calls them, "lectures," Mr. Gore also brings in his 'The Mission of the Church' (Scribner). We do not see that he accomplishes much more than, on the one hand, to assert that the duty of the time is "to be more true to our own principles, and to teach with more positive plainness what the Church commissions us to teach," and, on the other, to say he is "thankful the Church of England did not commit herself," as many of her articles are "studiedly vague." From Macmillan we have the latest volumes of Prof. Ryle. 'The Canon of the Old Testament' is perhaps sufficiently characterized by saying that it was quoted by Prof. Briggs in his defence against charges of heresy as in agreement with his well-known positions. 'The Early Narratives of Genesis' is a discussion of the first eleven chapters of Genesis from the standpoint of the new criticism, and particularly of comparative religion. The Hulsean Professor of Divinity seems almost afraid of his own conclusions, and this gives his pages an air of apology in the ordinary sense of the word. In 'Creation of the Bible,' by Myron Adams (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), we have an untechnical and rather tiresome setting forth of the later views of the nature and history of the literature of the Bible. One judgment of the author's ought to win general assent: "There is no entirely good reason why we should be more stupid about the Bible than about any other book."

—Of recent books setting forth in popular form the results of Hexateuch analysis, the most readable is 'The Documents of the Hexateuch' (London: D. Nutt; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons), by Mr. W. E. Addis of Balliol College, Oxford. The number of such works now being published is proof of the general interest in the subject. Kautzsch and Socin in Germany, and Bacon and Bissell in this country (the former with friendly, the latter with hostile intent), have made the constitution of Genesis accessible to the lay public. Mr. Addis undertakes what had not been attempted before, to give the text of each of the great constituent parts of the Hexateuch. The present volume (Part i. of the whole work) contains the "oldest book of Hebrew history," the picturesque and vivid prophetic narrative in which are found those sto-

ries that have made the Hexateuch a religious classic. It is itself composite, being made up, according to the received view, out of two documents which, from the divine names they use, are termed the Yahwistic and the Elohist; the first of these is here printed in ordinary type, the second in italics. We thus have a clear and agreeable page, with sufficient distinction of the documents for the general reader. In the Introduction, Mr. Addis gives a short history of the criticism of the Hexateuch, and in foot-notes explains and supports his translations and divisions. He follows the majority of critics in assigning the prophetic history (commonly marked J E) to the eighth century B. C. This may be accepted for the greater part of the Hexateuch, but there are strong grounds for putting the prophetic element in Gen. ii.—xi. later. Apart from this and other questions of special criticism, Mr. Addis's book will be welcomed by those who wish to see the form in which the old history was known and stated in the times of Amos and Isaiah, before the priestly additions (Gen. i. and other chapters) were incorporated into the text.

—Our Scotch friends have already read us a lesson in the treatment of women by their three great Universities of St. Andrews, Edinburgh, and Glasgow; and now they come forward to show us what they can accomplish in the way of pounds, shillings, and pence when they set their shoulders to the wheel in behalf of a popular cause. On the 22d of November a grand bazaar for the benefit of the endowment fund of Queen Margaret College (whose incorporation with the University of Glasgow was some time ago mentioned in these columns) was opened in St. Andrews Halls, Glasgow. Although the bazaar occupied not one but a succession of halls, the largest in Glasgow, the throng of visitors had, by the fourth evening, become so dense that it was necessary to close the doors about half an hour after opening, and to keep them closed for the rest of the evening. Immense quantities of goods of all sorts—work, curiosities, books, and pictures—were contributed by students, past and present, and by the best known people of Glasgow and the West of Scotland. The Queen was the patron, the Marchioness of Lorne the president, while the list of the seventy and odd vice-patrons looks like nothing so much as a page out of Burke's 'Peerage,' so profusely are titles strewn up and down it. The bazaar was opened on the first day by the Lord Provost of Glasgow; on the second, by Lady Alice Shaw Stewart; on the third, by the Principal of the University; on the fourth, by Mrs. Elder, the munificent donor of the buildings of Queen Margaret College; and on the fifth and last day, by the M. P. for the University. To come to the main question, the sum taken in during these five days and evenings reached the magnificent figure of £12,000, with a plus sign to be added. From this sum about £1,500 will have to be deducted for expenses. There will remain, however, when all is told, over £10,000, which the organizers of the bazaar, who have been at work for about a year and a half, will have the enviable pleasure of handing over to the University Court—the body that had so memorably taken the lead in generosity by incorporating Queen Margaret College while the precise figure of her endowment was still trembling in the balance.

—A correspondent writes us from London:

"The Independent Theatre Society of London has at length taken the first step toward the fulfilment of the object for which it was

established. It has produced an original drama by an Englishman—or, in this case it would be more correct to say, by an Irishman. 'Widowers' Houses,' by Mr. George Bernard Shaw, was the play given at the second performance of the Society's second season, on December 9, at the little Royalty Theatre in Soho. But this first experiment makes one wonder if henceforth the Society will not do better—artistically at least—by continuing to devote itself to English adaptations of French masterpieces, or even the revival of old English tragedies and comedies. Mr. Shaw certainly is not the young dramatic genius for whom all England has been waiting, but who has been forced hitherto by prejudiced Philistine managers to hide his light. That the author of the 'Quintessence of Ibsenism' should have studied the methods of Ibsen is but natural. It is unfortunate, however, that he limited his study to the preaching proclivities of the master, rather than to his unquestionable dramatic ability. 'Widowers' Houses' is a lesson in economics, an essay on Socialism—it would serve admirably as a lecture at a Fabian or Trafalgar Square Meeting; it is anything but a play. Mr. Shaw's intention, as he explained it in a speech after the performance, was to give a picture of English middle-class life in all its ugliness and sordidness. But if in this he is thought to have succeeded, his 'didactic' comedy, as he calls it, is simply another proof that in art, dramatic or otherwise, something more than a 'human document' is needed; the play, in the manner of Ibsen, is all talk and no action. Mr. Shaw is a very clever man, and the dialogue is relieved by touches of humor and whimsical absurdities which go far to relieve its tediousness, and to place it on a much higher literary plane than the work of a Henry Arthur Jones, for example. Moreover, the plot and characters not making such large demands upon the players as the 'Duchess of Mall,' given at the first performance, the piece was fairly well rendered, and has brought conspicuously before the public one actor, Mr. James Welch, of more than ordinary talent, who, it is certain, will be heard of again as a comedian. The first night's performance was received with mingled feelings. The artistic element in the audience was bored; the socialistic element was enchanted. But with opposition so strong, and with labor organs praising his drama with fulsome flattery as a great social factor, there is every chance of Mr. Shaw's becoming an English Ibsen."

—The question of the origin and the mode of formation of the perfume of flowers has long been earnestly debated amongst botanists without ever being satisfactorily solved. In a paper lately read before the Académie des Sciences, M. Ménard, a young French student of botany, set forth the results of his investigation of the subject, which appear to be more than usually happy. By minute microscopic study of the constituent parts of flowers, he has made out that the essential oils which give off perfume have for their chosen seat the inner surface of the calyx and the corolla. On the outer surface they are rarely found, while, on the other hand, colored pigments, and the tannin which serves to form them, abound. Following out the development of flowers, M. Ménard finds in the chlorophyll, the green coloring matter contained in leaf cells, the source of all these products. It is first transformed into glucosides, substances analogous to tannin. On the outer surface of the flower, where these glucosides are exposed to light and air, they serve as materials for the production of pigments and tannin; on the inner side, protected in the bud, they are transformed into essential oils, which are strongly oxydized at the moment of bloom, and thus disengage their perfume. The fragrance is fine in proportion as the essential oil is pure; that is to say, in proportion as it is free from secondary products derived from the chlorophyll. This explains why white flowers are generally fragrant, while green ones are odorless, and those of the composite family, rich in tannin, are often disagreeable.

—It is a pleasure to notice that the method of exact philological research which has distinguished the work of German literary historians in nearly every domain save that of nineteenth-century literature is beginning to make itself felt in this branch of study also. Seuffert's careful analysis of the 'Nordseebilder,' Elster's admirable Heine edition, Koch's Lenau studies, Litzmann's 'Zeitschrift für Theatergeschichte,' are unmistakable symptoms of a turning of the tide in this direction. And a recent Freiburg doctor's dissertation on Michael Beer, which lies before us, goes to show that even the minor lights of modern literature are now dealt with at German universities in the same spirit of patient and impartial investigation as the ancient or mediæval classics. The author, Dr. Gustav Manz, a pupil of Hermann Paul and Max Koch, promises us, as a continuation of the present thesis, a comprehensive biography of Beer. What he gives here is in the main an analysis of his first dramas, above all of the 'Paria.' Michael Beer, a brother of the composer Meyerbeer, has left no lasting impression on German literature. He was a man of noble instincts and versatile talents, but he lacked originality. In form as well as in substance he was an imitator of the great eighteenth-century classics. Heine said of him, "He will be immortal as long as he lives"; and although this bitter judgment was dictated by personal jealousy of Beer's extraordinary outward success as a playwright, it is in the main correct. Nevertheless, Beer's career is far from being without interest. No one represents better than he the literary culture and cosmopolitan freedom which, during the first quarter of this century, emanated from the Jewish circles of the Prussian capital; and, with the exception of Heine and Auerbach, no Jewish writer has been received more readily and sympathetically by the German public than he. His 'Paria,' which during the twenties was one of the favorite plays of the German stage, stands midway between Lessing's 'Nathan' and Gutzkow's 'Uriel Acosta.' Like the former, it preaches the gospel of humanity and toleration; like the latter, it presents a harrowing picture of the evils of caste and prejudice; and if it is inferior to either in dramatic force, it certainly will remain a remarkable document in the history of intellectual emancipation. It is to be hoped that Dr. Manz will make good his promise and give us an authentic account of the poet's life.

WRIGHT'S MAN AND THE GLACIAL PERIOD.

Man and the Glacial Period. By G. Frederick Wright. [International Scientific Series.] D. Appleton & Co.

THE present volume has much in common with the author's 'Ice Age in North America.' Its scope is stated to be the question of "man's entire relation to the glacial period in Europe as well as in America," and its professed purpose is to give "a clear view of the present state of progress in one department of the inquiries concerning man's antiquity." The earlier chapters are intended to supply the geological information necessary to an appreciation of the evidence bearing on man's relation to the ice epoch. The first contribution to this end is a series of definitions which, unfortunately, are largely incorrect or incomplete. A glacier is defined to be "a mass of ice so situated and of such size as to have motion in itself" (p. 2). The definition of *névé* is embodied in the following: "Upon ascending

a glacier far enough, one reaches a motionless part corresponding to the lake out of which a river often flows. Technically, this motionless part is called the *névé*" (p. 3). The one definition is inadequate, as short definitions are almost sure to be, while the other is altogether wrong. *Névé* and *motion* stand in no necessary relation to each other. In point of fact, *névé* is not a "motionless part," but moves along with the rest of a glacier. To this "motionless" *névé* is ascribed the function of generating the impulse which sets the glacier in motion. How a motionless body is to generate motion, we do not comprehend.

To a proper understanding of the relation of human relics to the formations of glacial age an accurate knowledge of glacial formations, and a detailed as well as a general conception of glacial history, are indispensable. The chapter to which we turn for this information contains many details concerning the work done by our author in Pennsylvania many years since, while he was the late Prof. Lewis's assistant. These details, some of which have no bearing on the theme announced in the preface, can hardly do more than confuse the lay reader, while they add nothing to the knowledge of the expert. The minute definition of the position of the terminal moraine in Pennsylvania is followed by the definition of the position of the outer limit of drift in Ohio and the States further west, without clear indication that the one line is not the continuation of the other. The westward continuation of the moraine of Pennsylvania is found to lie a considerable distance north of the outer limit of glacial drift. This fact is full of meaning for the theme Prof. Wright discusses, but of its significance we find nothing, and the non-scientific reader will hardly be able to apprehend the true relation of things. Prof. Wright has long held that when the ice of the glacial period reached and crossed the Ohio River near Cincinnati, it constituted a dam behind which the waters of the Ohio accumulated, forming a lake. At first thought such an hypothesis seems altogether credible. But critical examination has shown that the two main lines of evidence relied upon by the advocates of the ice-dam hypothesis have been misinterpreted. It has been clearly pointed out on the one hand that the terraces of the upper branches of the Ohio could not have been produced by the supposed lake, even if it existed. It has been shown on the other hand that the silts supposed to have been deposited in the conjectured lake above the alleged dam, are continuous with deposits at similar levels below the dam. It follows that if the ice dam were responsible for the waters which deposited the silt, it must have had the remarkable ability of ponding the waters of the Ohio below as well as above itself. The published evidence on this latter point bearing against the author's conclusion is not considered.

Were the evidence of glacial man all that Prof. Wright believes it to be, one of the geological questions which most vitally affect its interpretation is the question of one versus multiple ice-epochs. When glacial studies began to be actively prosecuted in America, less than a score of years ago, the chapter of geological history with which they dealt was considered so remarkable that all effort was directed toward proving or disproving the reality of continental glaciation. We believe it was not until the general fact of continental glaciation had been measurably demonstrated that the question of more than one epoch of glaciation was seriously considered. It then became evident to the leaders in this field of

geology that certain phenomena suggested two glaciations instead of one. Thus arose the hypothesis that, after one protracted advance of the ice, there followed a genial interval, during which the ice receded far to the north, and that subsequently it re-advanced, overriding and burying or destroying the evidences of its first incursion and retreat. So soon as this possibility was clearly conceived it gave new impetus to observation, with the result that the belief in two glaciations has come to be general. There are still dissenters from the doctrine of two glaciations, just as there were for a long time, and indeed as there are still, dissenters from the idea of even one. But the set has been steadily toward the acceptance of the doctrine of recurring glaciations. In 1891 the notion was distinctly announced in America that our drift phenomena may require the recognition of more than two glacial epochs, and already this suggestion finds favor among some of our leaders in glaciology, both here and abroad. In the face of this condition of opinion in Europe and America, we have a book, purporting to set forth the "present state of progress," which advocates the ideas that were generally held by glacialists in the days of the infancy of glacial geology. It is true that Prof. Wright nominally considers the arguments on which the current doctrine of two or more glacial epochs is based, and finds them insufficient; but his consideration is neither impartial nor adequate.

The second part of the treatise deals with man's relation to the glacial formations, and the author's conclusion that man was contemporaneous with the ice of the glacial epoch is given without qualification, although the whole tendency of recent critical investigation has been to raise very serious doubts concerning the sufficiency of the supposed proofs of this proposition. It is not the integrity of the earlier investigators that is questioned, but their conclusions. Many so-called palæolithic implements have been found in the glacial gravels of the Delaware River at Trenton, and a few in glacial gravels in several other localities. Later researches, especially those carried on by Holmes, have shown that objects which are the exact counterparts of these so-called palæolithic implements are to be found in great abundance about the sites of the workshops of modern Indians in many localities in various parts of the country. The occurrence of these objects of human workmanship in glacial gravels which have never been disturbed, if such be the fact, is another question. If their form can be accounted for without invoking palæolithic man, can their occurrence in gravels of glacial age be explained without supposing man to have existed in the glacial period? This is a geological, rather than an archaeological question. By the uprooting of trees and the filling of the excavations thus made, by the movement of gravels on talus slopes, and by the filling of artificial excavations, surface objects may become embedded more or less deeply in gravels of any age. Has this been the history of the objects found in the glacial gravels of America? So far as the Babbitt finds of Little Falls, Minn., are concerned, the answer seems to be affirmative; but evidence that the Trenton objects may be similarly explained is not so conclusive, though we believe no competent geologist has ever observed them in glacial gravels which were demonstrably undisturbed. It is altogether possible, nay, it is altogether probable, that man existed upon the earth in the last glacial epoch. It is altogether possible

that he saw the ice of the earlier glacial epochs, or even that the earliest ice sheet did not find the race in its infancy. We are not arguing against the existence of glacial man, but we hold, in common with many geologists and archaeologists, that sufficient evidence is not yet forthcoming to demonstrate his contemporaneity with the ice period in America, or any part of it.

When Prof. Wright does not ignore other American glacialists, his recognition of them is not always flattering. Striking cases in point are found on pp. 109 and 307. On the former page, Chamberlin is quoted as "maintaining" that, during the interglacial epoch, the ice "wholly disappeared from the glaciated area to the north." Prof. Chamberlin's printed words are: "How far to the north this retreat carried the margin [of the ice] has not yet been ascertained; but . . . it is thought to be quite safe to believe that it withdrew entirely from our territory, if not from the Canadian highland ('Geology of Wisconsin,' i., 271). On the second page noted, the same author is again misquoted, in the good company of Prof. Comstock, as "maintaining" that during the glacial period the earth's axis "was somewhere in the region of Greenland." Chamberlin and Comstock have done no more than suggest the possibility of axial shifting, and of consequent change of latitudes, as a cause of glaciation in regions which now enjoy immunity from ice, and urge the importance of the fullest investigation along this line. Prof. Wright is in error in claiming as his own the discovery of glacial deposits in Kentucky (p. 212). These deposits were described in the Indiana geological reports years before Prof. Wright's work in that region, by both Messrs. Warder and Sutton; in earlier publications of his own, reference is made to these predecessors.

MEMORIALS OF COUNT VON ROON.

Denkwürdigkeiten aus dem Leben des General-Feld-Marschalls Kriegsministers Grafen von Roon. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. xvi., 502, xii., 764. Breslau: Eduard Trewendt; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1892.

THESE stout volumes are compiled and edited with a considerable degree of literary skill by Count Waldemar von Roon, the eldest son of the famous War Minister, and are, in great part, a reprint of a series of articles which appeared in the *Deutsche Revue* during the past three years. The author, who, with uncommon self-effacement, does not print his name on the title-page, disclaims, in his preface, the design of producing a full biography of his father, and pretends to furnish nothing more than materials for such a work, limiting his scope still further by including only such matters as had not previously appeared in print. Nevertheless his book gives the reader a vivid impression of one of the chief actors in the most stirring scenes of German history, and serves to demonstrate once more with what genius the Emperor William I. selected his great servants and coadjutors. Among these Field-Marshal Von Roon deserves the third place, immediately next to Bismarck and Moltke, and is especially entitled to the credit of having materially contributed to bringing the two latter into the positions where their respective abilities could tell with their full weight. It was in part due to his repeated suggestions that Bismarck was brought into the Cabinet, and again due to his intervention that Moltke, as chief of staff, was brought into continuous personal communication with

the sovereign instead of having to use the War Minister as a medium. In thus voluntarily limiting his own prerogatives in favor of one who might, in one sense, have seemed a rival, Roon gave one of many proofs of his elevated sense of duty and of his sincere devotion to his king and his country. Perhaps the most interesting trait in the character of William I. is this very devotion with which he inspired his most distinguished adherents, and which he was never tired of acknowledging and rewarding.

His relations with Roon were especially intimate, and dated back before the troubled times of 1848, when, as Prince of Prussia, he was the most hated man in the kingdom. It was in November of that year that he offered to Roon the position of military tutor to Prince Frederick William, then just entering on his eighteenth year and later known as Frederick III. After the remarkable successes of 1866 and 1870, William I. never neglected an opportunity of expressing in public and in private his great obligations to Roon for his services in so organizing the Prussian armies as to render them an instrument of the highest precision. He repeatedly declared that it was due to the preparatory work of Roon, continued for years, that the German armies were so rapidly and uniformly victorious. After awarding full praise to the statesmanship of Bismarck and to the generalship of Moltke, a very considerable share of honor will always remain for the highly intelligent organizing ability of Roon, and for the persistence and energy with which, amid discouragements and difficulties, he kept steadily in view the designs which he finally accomplished.

Aside, however, from his public services, which are a matter of history, Albert von Roon is a striking and interesting figure. In him were personified many of the best traits of the German character, and one can readily imagine that Carlyle would have delighted in making him one of his heroes. His bearing was stern and the reverse of conciliatory; when he declined the place of tutor to Prince Frederick William, he gave as one of his reasons that he was ill-adapted for the atmosphere of a court. His private life was unexceptionable in its purity, and his letters, published in the work before us, show him to have been an affectionate husband and father. The smoothness of his domestic relations was in some contrast with the varied matrimonial adventures of his father, who, at the age of twenty-three, married his first wife, a rich woman ten years his senior, who, in order to marry him, had got herself divorced from her first husband. She died in childbed, and two years after his first marriage he married the daughter of a wealthy Frankfort merchant, but was divorced from her at the end of a year; at the age of twenty-eight he eloped with his third wife, a young widow whose family soon became reconciled to the match and bought the young couple an estate. This marriage, however, was not a happy one, which is not surprising, as the husband was dissipated and extravagant, and seems to have answered the typical description of the reckless and good-looking Prussian lieutenant.

The only surviving child of this marriage was Albert von Roon, born April 30, 1833. As a child he was left very much to himself, having no brothers or sisters, and being only eight years old at the death of his father, who had long been an invalid, while his mother was, by reason of a nervous disorder, incapacitated from managing the household. He was nearly twelve years old when he was

first sent to school through the intervention of a cousin, and a year later he entered a military school. The property of his parents had by this time dwindled away to nearly nothing, and he was to a great extent dependent on the charity of relatives who were themselves none too well off, but who made up in good will what they lacked in wealth. The consciousness that he had neither money nor influential connections to push his fortunes, and that his advancement in life depended on his own exertions, stimulated him to diligence in his studies, and, having passed a satisfactory examination, he was appointed second lieutenant in January, 1851.

He did not, however, like many of his colleagues, consider his education complete, but prepared himself for admission to the general military school in Berlin, a sort of high-school or college for such officers as were ambitious to go beyond the ordinary curriculum. He attended its courses from 1854 to 1857, and in 1858 he was appointed instructor of the corps of cadets at Berlin. Like Moltke, he had been a distinguished pupil of Carl Ritter, the great geographer, and, also like Moltke, he had literary talents and instincts. Having been requested by his superiors to prepare a geographical hand-book for military schools, he published, in 1853, a work on the principles of geography, and two years later an abridgment treating of the elements. Both books came into general use and revolutionized the old method of instruction, reaching a sale of 50,000 copies. He also published two other works on similar subjects, but addressed to a more limited public. In 1852 he was relieved from his duties as teacher, and allowed to rejoin his regiment, having been promoted First Lieutenant. It was his chief ambition to join the General Staff, and he at last entered it in 1856, with the rank of Captain, at the comparatively early age of thirty-three. The staff then consisted of only forty-five officers. In the same year he married a cousin who was fifteen years his junior, and with whom he led a harmonious and happy life for forty-two years. Until he had passed his sixtieth year, his household was always conducted on a modest scale, as he had no income but his salary; but he managed to educate a large family, all of his sons entering the army and serving with distinction. One of them was killed at Sedan.

He continued his literary activity, and in 1843 became tutor to Prince Frederick Carl, going with him to Bonn, where the Prince attended the University, and accompanying him on two vacation journeys to Italy. When the revolution of 1848 broke out, Roon had already achieved a distinguished position in the army by his abilities and his character, and had, as above mentioned, attracted the attention of the Prince of Prussia, who was always deeply interested in military affairs. By temperament as well as in consequence of his official position, Roon was a conservative of the strictest sect, and a warm admirer of Prince William. In June, 1849, he took an important part in subduing the insurrection in the Palatinate, and it was his personal experience in the field that opened his eyes to the defective organization of the army and the urgent necessity of introducing thorough-going reforms. During the Crimean War, when Gen. Bonin was dismissed from the Ministry of War on account of his antipathy to Russia, Roon was already mentioned as a suitable man for the position; but as he was still only a colonel, his appointment at that time would have been contrary to established military etiquette.

The first beginnings of army reorganization may be said to date from a memorial on the subject prepared by Roon at the request of the Prince of Prussia in the summer of 1858, a few months before the latter assumed the Regency. Gen. Bonin, who had come back to the Ministry of War, was not favorable to the scheme, and resigned the place to make room for Roon, who was appointed in December, 1859, to the position, which he held for fourteen years. The letters of the Prince Regent printed in the work before us show that Sybel's account of the transaction is not entirely accurate. Roon was at that time (at the age of fifty-six) the youngest lieutenant-general in the army, and the only Conservative in a Liberal Ministry. He did not, however, enter the Cabinet as a politician, but solely as an expert and as the confidant of the Regent. When he had been in office a little over two months, on February 10, 1860, he made his first appearance in the Prussian House of Delegates with two bills for army reorganization which gave the signal for violent and bitter struggles with the Liberal majority that were waged without intermission until they were terminated by the victories of July, 1866. For more than two years Roon bore the brunt of the fight single-handed, and it was a great relief to him when, in September, 1862, he succeeded in having Bismarck appointed President of the Ministry, and could confine himself to the technical and professional branch of his duties, leaving the political and diplomatic worries to his capable colleague. From that time until his retirement from public life, in 1873, he faithfully seconded the policy of Bismarck, and they remained good friends, in spite of the great irritability of the Chancellor, who, as is well known, was a chronic sufferer from indigestion brought on by his irregular and reckless mode of life. On more than one occasion Roon had to mediate between Bismarck and the King.

It would be interesting, if space served, to follow Roon's official career in detail. His memoirs correct Sybel on one or two minor points besides the one already mentioned. They also seem to show that as late as June 7, 1870, Bismarck had no expectation of war with France during that summer, as in a letter of that date to Roon he speaks of having just taken a furlough of six weeks.

RHODES'S HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

History of the United States, from the Compromise of 1850. By James Ford Rhodes. Vols. I. and II.: 1850-1860. 8vo, pp. 506, 541. Harper & Bros.

THE list of American authors who have made the writing of history their profession is an honorable one, and many educated Americans would give it preëminence in the catalogue of our literary men. Prescott, Bancroft, Motley, Parkman, and Henry Adams make, of themselves, a list in which it would be a "decoration" to be enrolled, and their brilliant success has proved that young men of easy fortune are capable of a life-long devotion to the most laborious of pursuits. Happily it is also true that the pursuit is a fascinating one, the appetite for it growing by what it feeds on; so that the years of seclusion and study which must precede any valuable results are not years of task-work, cheered only by the hope of recognition. They are, perhaps, those of most thorough enjoyment, for broad and deep investigation proves to be its own reward; the growing acquaintance with another time and

its generation of men and women combining the pleasures of travel and of society within the four walls of the investigator's own library.

Mr. Rhodes is a candidate for historical honors, and these two handsome volumes contain the first fruits of labors in which he has been wholly absorbed for a series of years already considerable. His plan is an ambitious one, for he proposes to give us the history of our country from 1850 to 1885; a period covering the whole course of events from the end of the Mexican War to the close of the era of "war issues" by the first election of President Cleveland. A whole library of books has been published dealing with particular parts and individual characters of this period. We have monographs political and military, biographical and autobiographical, Nationalist and Confederate, Republican and Democratic. To grasp the whole with firmness, to seize the dominant influences, to comprehend the true progress of humanity and of thought, to reach the real significance of events and the true motives of action, to recognize the new forces that are developed and the relations of the America of 1885 to that of 1850, is a task compared with which the writing of any of the special works alluded to is mere child's play. Mr. Rhodes will have the encouragement of sympathetic good wishes from educated men and women, who will follow the execution of his great plan with sincere and hopeful interest.

In his opening volumes we naturally look for the keynote of the composition as a whole. We desire to learn his standpoint, and to compare with our own his canons of judgment in regard to men and events. His own personal and intellectual history counts for much, in this part of our inquiry, and what we know of it throws useful light upon his treatment of the ten years which preceded the civil war.

Mr. Rhodes is a member of a family of business men of Cleveland, Ohio, where his father was for many years a marked character and a prominent citizen, largely interested in the railway development of the West and a successful captain of industry. He was in intimate personal relations with his kinsman, Stephen A. Douglas, and a devoted friend and political supporter of Douglas in his public career. He was one of the faithful band who advocated Douglas's nomination to the Presidency at the Charleston Convention in 1860, and who nominated him at Baltimore when the ultra Southern men had seceded from the Convention. Our author knew Douglas as a child knows an honored and intimate guest in his father's house, and more or less of hero-worship entered into his boyish recollections of that dashing politician. His college life in New York and some years then spent in study in Paris and in Berlin developed robust intellectual qualities which in early manhood took a decided bent toward historical study. Too young himself, during the civil war, to have other sentiments and opinions than those he may be said to have inherited, he became as he grew to manhood a consistent and earnest supporter of the national cause against that of the Secessionists. The Douglas Democrats were generally known as War Democrats, and their zeal against the Southern Confederacy was sharpened by their personal attachment to a leader who, as they thought, had been politically destroyed by the South when he might, by its support, have carried the country through its crisis without war.

In such influences and surroundings Mr. Rhodes grew up, and we may safely guess that

his own remembrances of Douglas gave added zest to his study of the causes which led to the great rebellion, and that a wish to picture his father's friend in his relations to the pregnant events of the decade before the outbreak was potent in his resolution to devote himself to a work which has grown upon his hands. At least, we should hazard little in saying that such considerations led him to place the beginning of his history at 1850 rather than 1860, when the purpose of writing a history of the war period and its results became fixed.

Von Holst's well-known work ends with the inauguration of Mr. Lincoln, and it would be impossible to avoid some comparison between his final volumes and these opening ones of Mr. Rhodes, since they cover the same period. The general conclusions are not materially different. Both adopt the anti-slavery view and are earnest supporters of the national side. The German historian seems to us, however, to have a stronger grasp of the great truth that the slavery question was the essence of the constitutional history of the country from the beginning of the century, and had to work itself out by the inevitable laws of political evolution. Mr. Rhodes speaks of the periods of quiet which came from time to time, as if the agitation had ceased and a permanent acquiescence could be reckoned upon if the successive compromises had not been disturbed. He does not seem to recognize with sufficient clearness the fact that there was a constant current of public opinion, growing, at the North, into a swelling tide of opposition to slavery, while a counter current at the South was carrying the people of the slaveholding States toward the logical demand for the recognition of the doctrine of chattel property in slaves everywhere in the Territories of the United States.

The difference between the historians seems to be due, in the main, to their different personal education in early life, which has in some degree modified their views of the earlier stages of the great discussion. We think that view the juster which looks at the anti-slavery movement as a ceaseless and continuous one, in which the onward movement of the tide is never stayed, though there may seem to be a backward flow between the surges which still sweep farther up the shore, one after another. The steady advance of public opinion is proved by the force and height of these successive waves. We had occasion to say, in noticing Von Holst's last volume, that newspapers are not conclusive evidence on this point. The proofs of the progress of opinion are often wanting or obscure, until some new occasion calls them out; and nothing is more common than to find the so-called organs of public opinion the most astonished at the results of an election or of some other outward expression of a growing popular will. There is a degree of danger, therefore, that a historian shall too confidently assume that his materials are complete, and that what he does not find in current contemporaneous publications is non-existent. There is abundant room for the exercise of inductive sagacity in drawing conclusions from the evidence, however full the record and the testimony may seem to be.

An application for this may be found in Mr. Rhodes's treatment of Mr. Webster's celebrated speech on March 7, 1850, which is commonly regarded as his political suicide. The Massachusetts statesman then separated himself from the anti-slavery Whigs, and gave the full weight of his influence to Mr. Clay's compromise measures, including the Fugitive Slave Bill and the opening of Utah and New

Mexico to slavery. In regard to the latter point, Mr. Webster based his conduct on the force of the "law of nature," which he said would forbid slavery to take root in those Territories. Mr. Rhodes thinks he was right in this, and that he saw more clearly than his detractors. Of course, the burning questions at the time were whether Mr. Webster was not abandoning the more earnest anti-slavery ground which he, as well as his constituents, had before occupied, and whether he was not doing this to secure Southern support in a Presidential nomination. But, quite apart from this, the event showed that he was not wise, but mistaken. The natural barrier to the spread of slavery found in climate or physical features of the country was in fact inefficient in the middle belt of our States and Territories. Slavery was kept out of Indiana and Illinois only by the Ordinance of 1787. Utah and part of what was then New Mexico were in the latitude of Missouri, which was wholly north of the compromise line of 36 degrees 30 minutes north latitude. The struggle for Kansas was in the same belt.

But the question whether slavery would ultimately hold a Territory was but a part, and the smaller part, of the controversy. If it could enter the Territory at all, it had the effect of a pestilence upon free labor, making it avoid the region as one infected. Immigrants would not go to a new country where their future contained so great a hazard. The result of organized immigration into Kansas was the exception that proved the rule, for it was the extraordinary organization that gave the free settlers courage.

Nor does Mr. Webster's wisdom appear greater if we consider what would have been the results of an opposite course. Suppose he had defeated the Compromise by casting his lot with the anti-slavery Whigs. California would not have been admitted to the Union at that session of Congress; but with the marvellous rush of immigration, stimulated by the "gold-fever," who can believe that it could have been kept out longer than a single year? This at least is certain: the pretended repeal of the Missouri Compromise would never have been attempted, the Kansas-Nebraska bills of Douglas would never have been passed, the civil war in Kansas would have been averted, John Brown might have remained on his farm in North Elba, and secession must have found some other pretext. Such a Pandora's box did Mr. Webster's speech prove to be!

The apology for Webster was necessary to consistency, for Mr. Rhodes defends Douglas when the latter also applied the "law of nature" to the slavery question in Kansas. He, however, does not justify the introduction of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, nor the repeal of the Missouri Compromise. He takes a more favorable view of Mr. Douglas's possible sincerity than is commonly taken, and, connecting the "squatter-sovereignty" doctrine with that of the "natural law" against slavery found in the physical characteristics of the Territory, he gives almost unqualified praise to Mr. Douglas's course after he broke with Buchanan and opposed admission under the Lecompton Constitution.

The picture of Mr. Douglas is a striking one, and, even making fair allowance for the predilection to which we have adverted, it may be accepted as one that is on the whole reasonable and just. The question of his motives and ambitions may be waived, and we may be glad to see in him genial and attractive traits of character which might well draw to him the devoted attachment of friends. "We get also

clearer views of his mental processes in the great contest of 1860, and can respect his far-sightedness in maintaining the form of doctrine on which he finally planted himself, as being the only one he could defend, short of surrendering at discretion, to the logic with which Mr. Lincoln had belabored him in the famous debate of 1858. He saw that the ultra-Southern position was destructive of the Democratic party as it had been of the Whig, and that unless a new Democracy could be successful under his banner of Popular Sovereignty, defeat was inevitable. He was personally indifferent to slavery as an institution, not caring, as he said, whether it was voted up or down, and so put himself on the wrong side of an issue in which the Northern conscience was following Mr. Lincoln, who saw in the moral wrong of slavery a reason why it should ultimately be extinguished and should, at least, be kept from spreading. With the opening of the war the Douglas party became earnest supporters of the Lincoln Administration for a time; and, in the American willingness, in politics, to let bygones be bygones, men did not inquire of Seward or Chase, of Wade or Chandler, whether they had been in the old Democratic or the old Whig party.

Mr. Rhodes has expressly reserved for future treatment several topics which belong to the physical development or the financial history of the country. He has given us two examples of his treatment of special topics, from which we may form some judgment of his force and his methods. In a long chapter on Slavery he has taken up the system in itself, in its effects upon the master and his family, upon the slave and his posterity, and upon the community in which the system is tolerated. He has given the arraignment by its enemies, the apologies of those who tolerated it, and the arguments of its ultra advocates. It would be hard to find a more judicial summing up of the case, and we doubt whether a fairer view of the whole subject can be met with in so moderate a space. The bibliography of this chapter alone is very extensive, and the author may take satisfaction in having done an excellent piece of work for which all students will thank him.

He has also devoted the greater part of a chapter to the yellow-fever epidemic in New Orleans in 1853, in which a dramatic contrast is drawn between the careless gayety of creole life in the preceding winter and the horrible scenes of panic when the epidemic reached its height in the late summer. In both parts of the contrast there are suggestions of models studied in the French school of realism, though keeping within the limits imposed by English and American taste. The chapter is a very powerful one, but the reader has a little the feeling that it is not altogether within the scale of proportions required by general history. It is strictly local, with no general treatment of the subject of the epidemic, with hardly a reference to its spread or its characteristics in other cities and places. One cannot help thinking that it is an insertion, having a very loose connection with the current story, from which its high coloring makes it stand out all the more noticeably. This sense of disproportion grows when we find that the Japan expedition under Commodore Perry is dismissed in a footnote.

In such a work it is, no doubt, one of the greatest embarrassments of an author to fix this proportion of parts, to decide when to expand, when to condense, what to omit and

what to include. Art is proverbially long, and the most artistic literary sense must be trained by feeling its way to a satisfactory arrangement of figures and of perspective on the historical canvas. When an author's *magnum opus* is his only work, we have no right to complain if we sometimes detect tentative efforts in it, and a less sure grasp of the whole than we may fairly look for as he goes on. We are confident that Mr. Rhodes will not take it amiss if we say that the first of these volumes would be none the worse for a literary revision, and that the second shows a simpler and more masculine style, an easier and more assured flow of narrative, and greater freedom from mannerisms and habitual expressions. The mere dash of the pen through a phrase or a word, now and then, would silence nearly every criticism in this respect. His style, at its best, is direct and strong, giving the matter preëminence, and thinking comparatively little of form. This certainly is the solid way to build such a work, though it still leaves room for reasonable care in removing obscurities or infelicities of expression, and giving such thought to make the style agreeable as may consist with the rule that the art should conceal itself.

Our duty would be quite incompletely done if we should omit to recognize the evidences of very wide research and most conscientious labor to be found on nearly every page of these volumes. The extent to which newspaper files have been studied is remarkable. Mr. Rhodes has not been content to follow one or two leading papers of each political party, but has delved right and left among the journals of the North and the South, the East and the West, the organs and the independent presses, and has brought to light much fresh and significant matter. The general literature of his subject he seems to have classified carefully and to have well in hand, so that his views, whether we agree with them or no, are so widely based upon the study of contemporary material that no one can treat them lightly or challenge them without reflection. It is already certain that if he shall live to complete his task, we shall have a noteworthy and valuable addition to our solid literature. It may not be absolutely free from predilection and bias, but the unquestionable honesty of his purpose and the thoroughness of his method will give as nearly judicial results as we may fairly expect from any one who has lived in contact with the events which he narrates.

NADAILLAC'S PREHISTORIC MANNERS

Manners and Monuments of Prehistoric Peoples. By the Marquis de Nadaillac. Translated by Nancy Bell (N. D'Anvers). G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1892. 412 pp., 8vo, 113 illus.

PREVIOUS publications by the Marquis de Nadaillac, '*Les Premiers Hommes*' and '*L'Amérique Préhistorique*,' have been welcomed as successful endeavors to popularize the main results reached by the modern science of prehistoric archaeology. The latter work was translated into English some years since by the lady who has undertaken a similar charge for the present volume, and has been published in this country. In the work before us, the author has attempted to present within moderate dimensions a vivid picture of "the life and times" of early man, condensed from his larger studies spoken of above. This difficult task, we think, has been accomplished better than it has ever been done before. We regret, however, that we cannot speak as favorably of the translator's share in the volume

in hand. On the contrary, we feel constrained to characterize it as marked by such carelessness and ignorance, both of the language and of the subject-matter of the original, as to require its thorough revision, which the beautiful mechanical execution of the book warrants. This is certainly a grave charge to bring, but we think the instances that have fallen under our eye in the course of our examination fully justify it, and some of these we shall proceed to place before our readers.

A prefatory note states that "the author and translator have carefully brought down to date the original edition," etc. This, however, we can scarcely credit, as we find that no attempt has been made to correct errors pointed out by Cartailhac, in the *Matériaux*, so long ago as June, 1888. We do not feel warranted, however, in fixing upon the author the responsibility for blunders not to be found in the original.

M. Gaston Paris appears (p. 4) disguised under the appellation of M. Gaston. We read on p. 7 that, "during the early portion of the eighteenth century, a pointed black flint, *evidently the head of a spear* [the italics are ours], was found in London with the tooth of an elephant. It was described in the *newspapers of the day*." The author is not guilty of asserting that this classic first discovered palæolithic implement was "evidently the head of a spear," which could not possibly be true, as is proved by its magnitude and weight, but only that it was *taillé en pointe de lance*, shaped in form like a spear-head; while instead of "newspapers" he speaks of *les ouvrages du temps*, by which he intends Hearne's edition of Leland's 'Collectanea,' a ponderous antiquarian treatise in six volumes. We are informed that the Etruscans wore flint arrow-heads on their "collars" (p. 17) instead of their "necklaces" (*colliers*); and, possibly by a confusion of "barrows" with "burrows," *barrows enfouis sous un talus* is rendered "barrows hollowed out of the cliff," for "covered by a slope of detritus" (p. 80). On p. 66 a harpoon is said to be made of *whalebone*, as the translation of *de l'os d'un cétace*, bone of a cetacean.

Herodotus's familiar story about certain ancient Lake-Dwellers who were in the habit of lowering baskets into the water and drawing them up filled with fish, is credited to the "Poeni (Carthaginians)," instead of the Pæonians, in Macedonia (p. 67). Certain anchors, made out of large stones, are said to have been discovered in "crossing a basin of the Bay of Penhouet"; the author's statement is *creusant*, excavating (p. 78). A great deal is told about "the celebrated Lake Station of Solutré" (p. 85), which is still further disguised in the index as "Solutré Cave." This famous open-air station is not far from Mâcon, and there is no lake nearer to it than Geneva. When it is stated that "4,000 flints were picked up there in one dwelling alone" (p. 232), this can only be true of the station as a whole. The author is made to speak of "the bolas flung by the ancient Gauls" (p. 88), while what he actually does is to conjecture that possibly certain rounded stones may have been used by the ancient Gauls for the same purpose for which *bolas* are used by the inhabitants of the pampas of South America.

We read on p. 90 that "to all appearance the most ancient bows of *historic times* greatly resemble these two prehistoric examples." By the addition of the words "of historic times" the author's meaning is completely changed. He is arguing that no bows belonging to the palæolithic period are known,

but that probably they resembled the two known prehistoric examples, which belong to the neolithic period. We must beg leave, by the way, to record our disagreement with this opinion of M. de Nadaillac, as we do not think that palæolithic man had advanced sufficiently to have invented so complex a weapon as the bow and arrow. On p. 92 "a bevelled arrow-shaft," made of reindeer antler, is spoken of instead of "arrow-head"; *une pointe de trait en bois de renne taillée en biseau; sculptée sur os* (p. 123) is translated "engraved in wood"; and Arian is put for Aryan (p. 161).

Great confusion of thought is shown in the following paragraph (p. 172): "Countless centuries have passed away since the close of the palæolithic epoch. The burghs, nurhags, and castellieri show the progress of civilization, and at the same time prove that this progress extended throughout Europe, and that at a time *not so very far removed from our own*. The close resemblance between buildings of different dates enables us to speak with certainty of the connection between the races which succeeded each other in Europe." Such a *non sequitur* as this must not be charged upon the author. His conclusion is that there was a certain progress which spread throughout Europe at dates evidently not far apart, and that it is the resemblance between the different buildings, enumerated above, which enables us to speak with certainty of the connection between the races which succeeded each other in Europe.

We are told (p. 221) that "the most ancient Gallic coins date from about three centuries before our era, and the earliest British from a century *earlier* than that," instead of "later," *postérieures*; that some of the Breton menhirs are "surrounded" by "crosses" (p. 222), instead of "surmounted," *surmontent*; and *pietre branlante*, "rocking-stone," is translated "leaning pillar" (p. 223).

There are some amusing mistakes made in the account given of different kinds of arrow-heads (p. 233); some are said to be triangular, others again "cutting transversely," which is intended to be the translation of *pointes de flèche à tranchant transversal*, arrow-heads with transverse edges, or chisel-headed arrows; "some with, some without feathers," instead of "barbs," *ailerons*.

We are told (p. 248) about certain jade objects found in Nicaragua and about "the marks they retain of having been rubbed up," which is the translation given of *les retouches qu'ils portent*, the marks of secondary chipping they show. On a skull figured at p. 249 a wound is to be seen, and it is stated in regard to it that there "are marks of an attempt at healing. According to Dr. Hamy, many of the bones found in the Sordes Cave have very curious wounds." The author is speaking of the healing-process, *réparation*, to be seen upon numerous bones, and says that those in the Sordes Cave display very singular instances of it—*offrent des cas très curieux*. An arrow-head is said to have been "flung with such a sure hand that it has been driven *ten inches* deep into the bony tissue." One would suppose that common sense would have made impossible such a version of *vingt-cinq millimètres*, one inch (p. 252). *Des crânes percés d'un trou circulaire* (p. 255) is translated "pierced with circular tools"; *traumatisme* (p. 277) is called a "cerebral disease"; and *des lames minces et allongées* is rendered into "long, thin slices," instead of "slender blades."

By the careless omission of the words "and the King" (p. 291), the well-known ancient

fortification in the Vosges Mountains from which Cooper's novel, 'The Heidenmauer,' derives its name, is called "the Heidenmauer of Saint Odila near Hermanskiel, between the Moselle and the Rhine." Thus both its geographical situation and its identity are disguised, as there are several "Heathenwalls" in Central Europe. Finally, Schliemann is spoken of (p. 342) as "the great Danish antiquary"; the celebrated proto-Etruscan city of Marzabotto, which was at first supposed to be only a cemetery, is transmuted into Manzabotta (p. 356); Thayngen Cave is said in the index to be in Belgium, instead of in Switzerland, and we are told (p. 393) about "the scarcity of human remains in palæolithic caves and mounds," though it passes our comprehension to know what can be meant by a "palæolithic mound."

We had noted many more "errors and omissions" of the translator, but we spare our readers' patience. If space had permitted, we should have liked to say a few words about some disputed topics in prehistoric archaeology, in which we differ from the position assumed by the author, but we will confine ourselves to a single observation. The author is arguing that pottery was known in palæolithic times, contrary to the more generally received opinion that it was the invention of neolithic man, and he says in a note (p. 100), "But what is the value of categorical assertions of this kind [i.e., about the absence of palæolithic pottery in England] in presence of the fragments of pottery found at different levels in Kent's Hole?" Now, if this statement were correct, it might be regarded as settling the question, for never were investigations conducted more carefully and more scientifically than were those carried on for fourteen years by Mr. Pengelly on behalf of the British Association. This is what he says in his report made to that body in 1873, p. 213: "The men of the Black Mould had a great variety of bone instruments; they used spindle-whorls, and made pottery, and smelted and compounded metals. The older men of the Cave Earth made few bone tools; they used needles, and probably stitched skins together; but they had neither spindle-whorls, nor pottery, nor metals." There could not be a plainer assertion than this of the absence of pottery from the more ancient deposits in Kent's Hole.

We should find, however, very little fault with his general treatment of the subject by the author, and we could confidently recommend the book as the most comprehensive one in the English language treating of the earliest periods of man's existence, if proper corrections are made in the translation, as we have suggested.

The Naturalist in La Plata. By W. H. Hudson, C.M.Z.S. New York: Appletons; London: Chapman & Hall. 1892. 8vo, pp. 388. Illustrated.

THAT Mr. Hudson is a master of the art of description, a close observer, and capable of doing very good thinking, is well set forth by this volume. It is rarely the case that a writer on natural history so nearly produces in the minds of his readers the impression that they have seen and heard and felt with him. He has a fascinating style, clear, simple, and well-adapted to all classes of those interested in popular science. Besides its attractiveness for present reading there is much in the book that will last.

The matter relates to the peculiar life and

conditions of "La Pampa," the low and comparatively level region east of the foothills of the Andes in the southern portion of South America—subjects which heretofore have been somewhat neglected. Treating of his playground, of his playfellows in boyhood, and of his comrades in later life, the author writes with love and sympathy engendered by years of familiarity. What he has brought out by his thinking is no less interesting than the purely descriptive portions, though in places observations insufficiently varied or numerous render it liable to criticism.

The work is an extensive and diversified series of glimpses at natural phenomena, some of which pertain to insects—spiders, dragonflies, mosquitoes, bees, wasps, light-bearers, and parasites; some to the birds—reheas, humming-birds, jacanas, wood-hewers, and screamers; some to mammals—mice, coypus, armadillos, vizcachas, huanacos, pumas, and gauchos, and a few to reptiles. The more complete and thorough studies are "the biography of the vizcacha" (the "prairie dog" of the far south), and the history of the "wood-hewer" family of birds, the Dendrocolaptidae. Nature's treatment of excessive increase is exemplified in "a wave of life," an inordinate abundance of mice that induced rapid multiplication and gathering of their enemies—augmented even by insectivores changing diet for the time—all again reduced to lowest numbers by a season of drought. Certain records must await further observations before definite conclusions can be drawn. Such a case is that of "the wrestler frog," which grasped and squeezed the author's fingers before attempting to escape, then profited by the surprise of its would-be captor. From the account it would seem as if this was the usual habit, yet it may have been in the breeding season, when, as is known, the males of different species are prone to grasp moving objects near them—some having been taken tightly clasping the heads or backs of fishes. At this time the arms of such males become stronger and much enlarged, and each breast, and the inside of the first finger, of some species is provided with tubercular horn-covered spines to aid in holding. A similar reception is to be accorded the story of the huanaco's return to a special dying place, when sorely stricken. In North America there are numerous "bone-yards" among the foothills on which similar legends might be founded, but they are simply sheltered places in which the herds seek protection from storm and cold, where winter after winter has added to the accumulation of the skeletons of starved and frozen.

One of the heaviest blows yet dealt the theory of sexual selection occurs in the chapter on "Music and Dancing in Nature." Peculiar antics and songs of birds, solitary or in company, in the air or on the earth, the dances of the ypecaba rails, the wing displays of the jacanas, the ludicrous dance of a pair of spur-winged lapwings with a visitor from a neighboring pair, the ecstasies of the mocking-bird, the soarings and concerts of the crested screamers—all, with many others similarly vociferous and novel, are attributed to periodical fits of gladness, to joyous impulses such as induce extravagant actions in man himself. The conclusion is quite reasonable and likely to prevail, even though it may not apply to some of the vagaries of courtship.

In "The Strange Instincts of Cattle" there is an explanation which apparently is somewhat farther fetched: the killing of the disabled comrade by the herd is attributed to "a blunder in the helping instinct"; the herd, ex-

cited by cries and blood, rushes together not to kill, but to rescue. "In such circumstances the excitement must be discharged, the instinct obeyed; and, in the absence of any other object of attack, the illusion is produced and it discharges itself on the struggling companion." Now it is true, among other animals as well as cattle, that often, possibly most often, the victim, whether in a trap or in the field, is itself responsible for the attack upon it; for when wounded, in pain and enraged, it attacks any that come near it, and in consequence suffers the penalty. It hardly seems necessary to suppose the existence of an illusion; an attack is resented, and, being at a disadvantage, the attacking party gets killed. There is some resemblance between the mêlées of the cattle and those of the birds. An ypecaha rail raises a cry, and straightway a dozen or twenty others rush to the spot and engage in a tremendous screaming concert, dashing about with flapping wings as if crazed. A member of the herd begins to bellow and show signs of strong excitement, often without apparent cause; at once the entire herd rushes toward him, bellowing and plunging about as if suddenly maddened. The disturbance of the birds ends in peace. The clumsy cattle, in their reckless fervor, strike and wound one another until what began as an emotional outbreak of another character ends in fighting and possibly in slaughter; yet these latter were but accidental consequences of an excited condition of the herd.

The book may be safely and heartily recommended as one of the most original, thoughtful, and delightful books on popular natural history. Special attention of the proof-reader for future editions is needed in various portions of the text.

In Arctic Seas: the Voyage of the Kite with the Peary Expedition. By Robert N. Keely, jr., M.D., and G. G. Davis, M.D. Philadelphia: Rufus C. Hartranft. 1892. Pp. viii, 524, 8vo. Illustrated.

THIS work is divided into two parts, of which the first comprises the narrative of the expedition sent in 1891 to convey Lieut. Peary and his party to the Northwestern Coast of Greenland, while the second contains an account of the second voyage of the same vessel in 1892, when she was sent to bring the party home again. The latter also includes a transcript of the log of the *Kite* during the relief expedition, and correspondence relating to the fate of Verboeff, the mineralogist of the party, who disappeared a few days before the return of the expedition, and is supposed to have lost his life by falling into a crevasse in one of the glaciers during an imprudent excursion undertaken without a companion. The description of Lieut. Peary's journey over the inland ice, and its results, occupies but twenty pages; while the meteorological and other scientific records do not appear at all, indicating that the explorer has reserved for himself a detailed account of his remarkable journey and the observations taken during the winter at McCormick Bay, to be published later. A sketch-map of Greenland shows the general direction and termination of the journey over the ice from the winter quarters to a large fiord on the northeastern shore of Greenland, about one hundred and twenty miles south and east from Lockwood's furthest on the north shore.

A discussion of the journey and its bearing on the future of arctic exploration is better deferred until the publication of full details,

but it may be said that the records show that exploration over the inland ice with a small and suitably equipped party is less difficult than had been anticipated, and offers the prospect that much more may be done in Greenland in this way than might hitherto have been hoped for. The party seems to have been composed of congenial spirits, and the wintering passed more pleasantly and with less hardship than is usual in such cases. Even the hazardous experiment of including a lady in the party bore no evil fruits, though under conceivable circumstances it might have proved most unfortunate. It is certainly to be hoped that no future expedition will risk adding to the ordinary perils and anxieties of arctic work the knowledge that failure in either of several ways will certainly bring disaster upon a woman. The devoted self-sacrifice of the sex has been put to the proof too often to need any such test as this, and it is much to be feared that a repetition of it will add a new chapter to the annals of suffering which we may well be spared.

The remaining five hundred pages of the book contain a cheerful and entertaining account of the experiences of the party on the *Kite* during her two voyages, but nothing more. There is no addition to knowledge in it, or anything of serious importance. The illustrations are numerous and (except the portraits) foggy, or, occasionally, scratchy. The work terminates with a list of the persons invited to the reception given to the Lieutenant and his party after their return. It is attractively printed and bound, but contains no index.

The Acts and Resolves, Public and Private, of the Province of the Massachusetts Bay, etc. Vol. VII., being Volume II. of the Appendix, containing Resolves, etc. 1692-1702. Boston. 1892. 8vo, pp. 851.

IN this volume 372 pages are given to the Resolves, 374 pages to the editorial notes by Abner C. Goodell, jr., and 100 pages to the indexes. It is well known that, in five immense volumes, Mr. Goodell has already published for the Commonwealth the Public Laws for the Provincial period. He has now begun the issue of two remaining classes of laws—Private Laws; and Resolves, Orders, Addresses, etc. Volume vi. is to commence the series of Private Acts, and, though already in type, it is preceded by this seventh volume.

As to these Resolves, no particular enumeration is necessary. Of necessity they relate to special matters, mostly of temporary importance, and are to be considered as of antiquarian value, rather than as contributions to jurisprudence. Happy is the community whose records of such matters is ample; thrice happy the community which possesses an antiquary able and willing to gather up and suitably edit such a collection. On turning over Mr. Goodell's notes, the first impression is one of wonder at their extent. These 374 pages measure each 8 inches by 6, with 80 lines to the page, in small type. There are about 1,200 words to a page. Compare this with Parkman's last work—730 pages, with an average of not over 300 words to a page—and it will be seen that Mr. Goodell's notes cover nearly double the bulk. This comparison, of course, is made merely to show the amount of literary work covered by the phrase "with historical and explanatory notes." As to the quality of these notes much might be said, but the best description perhaps is that they are exhaustive of the sub-

ject. Mr. Goodell's wonderful industry and memory combine to enable him to bring into each note all that pertains to it and is to be found in the archives. To the local historian and the genealogist these pages will be most welcome.

It is impossible to overrate the value of the work already performed by Mr. Goodell. No other State has yet equalled Massachusetts in this department, and, in fact, men fit for such work are very rare. It not only requires that the editor shall be competent to take a high rank as an historian, but that he shall be willing to sacrifice his literary aspirations for the purpose of furnishing the materials to be used hereafter by others. It is at best a thankless task; its burden is increased when the work has to be annually criticised by a committee of a legislature whose approval or suffrance is indispensable for the necessary annual appropriation. The public will never know the difficulties which marked the issue of the earlier volumes of this series; but it is to be hoped that no more crude and impatient criticism will be allowed utterance.

Beauty of Form and Grace of Vesture. By Frances Mary Steele and Elizabeth Livingston Steele Adams. Dodd, Mead & Co.

THIS book, as the title indicates, is occupied less with hygienic dress reform than with æsthetic personal adornment. The most natural place in the world to find it would be the table of a drawing-room palely decorated in blue green or green blue, relieved by peacock feathers, Whistler etchings, and old delf. Admirably in keeping with such surroundings would be the ornaments, costumes, attitudes, and expressions of face it plans and advises. After looking through its pages one feels much as one has felt on coming from the Grosvenor Gallery into the common light of Bond Street. Ugly as are the crudities of shop-windows and the conventional fashions of women, they are yet a relief from the strained intensity of the limply draped ladies who pose in all manner of art colors and art fabrics. A sad self-consciousness such as theirs would, one is tempted to believe, be the fate of maid or matron who should pore too persistently upon the intricate directions here given for the attainment of beauty of form and feature.

Nor does it seem likely that the woman in healthy revolt against tight stays, high heels, and similar abominations of toilet, will here find the needed practical aid. Pleasing suggestions and charming generalities there are in abundance; but to those who are still in the toils of conventionality the subtle doctrines of æstheticism in dress cannot be imparted without a temporary descent from artistic declamation to plain and commonplace demonstration—demonstration so plain that even the novice in curves and folds and lines may ponder thereon and not grow confused. It is a pity, too, that a volume with a mission in one of the minor arts should not hold up a high standard of excellence in another, by illustrations better executed than those which are so profusely used and for the most part indifferently carried out.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbot, Dr. F. E. *Der Weg aus dem Agnosticismus.* Berlin: Bibliographisches Bureau.
American Church Almanac and Year Book for 1893. James Pott & Co. 25 cents.
Archæologia Oxoniensis. Part I. Oxford: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Bittinger, Rev. J. Q. *A Plea for the Sabbath and for Man.* Congregational Publishing Society. \$1.25.

Byars, W. V. Tannhäuser: A Mystery in Two Parts. St. Louis: C. W. Alban & Co.
 Caine, Hall. The Last Confession, and The Blind Mother. Tait, Sons & Co. \$1.
 Canadian Almanac, 1893. Toronto: Copp-Clark Co.
 Carducci, Giosuè. Poems. Translated with two Introductory Essays by Frank Sewall. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.25.
 Carus, Paul. Truth in Fiction: Twelve Tales with a Moral. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co. \$1.
 Chambrun, Comtesse de. Poésies. Paris: Calmann Lévy.
 Cheney, Ednah D. Life of Christian Daniel Rauch. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
 Egan, Maurice F. Songs and Sonnets, and Other Poems. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. \$1.
 Ellis, Havelock. The Nationalisation of Health. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnam. \$1.25.
 Famous Composers and Their Works. Four parts. Boston: J. B. Millet Co.
 Fane, Violet. Poems. 2 vols. London: J. C. Nimmo.
 Ferguson, George. Our Earth—Night to Twilight. Vol. II. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
 Foote, Rev. H. W. The Insight of Faith. Boston: G. H. Ellis. 50 cents.
 Gabillot, C. Les Hûtes, Jean-Baptiste et ses Trois Fils. [Les Artistes Célèbres.] Paris: L'Art; New York: Macmillan.
 George, H. A Perplexed Philosopher. C. L. Webster & Co. \$1.
 Gordon-Stables, Surgeon, R. N. Born to Command: A Tale of the Sea and Sailors. E. & J. B. Young & Co. \$2.
 Hiles, T. L. The Ice Crop. Orange Judd Co. \$1.
 Hodgkin, Thomas. Italy and her Invaders. 2d ed. 3 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
 Hope, A. R. Stories. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. \$1.75.
 Houston, E. J. Electricity and Magnetism. W. J. Johnston Co.

Howard, Blanche W. A Battle and a Boy. Tait, Sons & Co. \$1.
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